The Education Digest

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Volume XXII FEBRUARY, 1957 Number 6

Where Does the Money Go?

Federal Interest in Education

In Federal Funds for Education—1954–55 and 1955–56

Reported from Federal Funds for Education—1954–55 and 1955–56, *a publication of the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education (Bulletin 1956, No. 5), 4–24.*

FEDERAL concern for education is expressed in early paragraphs of the numerous public laws which authorize the programs. Some of the reasons are clearly stated and obviously portray the intent of Congress in supporting the educational services. Others are apparent in the kinds of programs authorized. Such reasons represent the attitude of the people. They need to be examined by public administrators, educators, legislators, and citizen committees to determine proper relationships among federal, state, and local programs of education, and to determine the proportions of financial support that may reasonably be provided by these three levels of government.

Here are a few of the more prominent national purposes underlying the provision of federal funds for education, as stated in public laws and preambles to bills introduced in Congress.

1. To encourage and support programs of education or services in the schools that are essential or beneficial to the national welfare and security.

2. To contribute to or provide education where there is a federal responsibility or obligation.

3. To provide educational and training services essential to the national defense but which are not the separate responsibility of any local community, state, or segment of the population.

4. To assist the economically underdeveloped areas of the world and to improve international relationships through the exchange of information and of students, teachers, professors, technicians, and leaders, with other countries.

5. To assist students, selected on the basis of tests and recommendations, to receive scholarships for advanced training that will serve the national welfare.

6. To maintain efficient governmental services and increase the effectiveness of the federal service through programs of education.

7. To promote the general welfare of the nation through research in the physical, biological, and social sciences that will develop new areas of learning and prepare more specialists with competencies in these fields.

Recognition should be given to the fact that the national interest in education changes along with other phases of national progress. For this reason, both the purpose and the scope of the federal participation in education should be reappraised frequently. A study of the recent messages of the President to Congress will assist students of this matter in identifying the trend of interests of the federal government in the educational programs and to indicate the reason for federal assistance with the financial support of many educational services.

An examination of the 99 programs of federal aid for education illustrate the various methods used in distributing funds for education. Methods have been adapted to the kinds of aids and to the purposes for which Congress provided the funds. These methods vary as outlined in the specific sections of the federal acts that provide for the authorization, appropriation, and expenditure of funds. However, some classification is possible since there are similarities in the procedures used.

In the early development of public education programs in the states admitted to the Union following the Louisiana Purchase, federal assistance was given in proportion to *land areas*. For example, Congress granted the 16th section of each township from the public domain to help with the establishment and operation of a system of education. About three-fourths of the states have received this type of federal assistance.

The establishment and operation of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts were assisted by federal grants which were roughly apportioned to the total *population*. Population has also been used in determining allocations of federal funds for vocational education, agricultural experiment stations, and agricultural extension services. More accurate measures for specific purposes employ limited portions of the population, such as children from 5 to 17, pupil enrolment figures, and numbers of pupils in average daily attendance.

Allocations of the same amount to all, regardless of other factors, are usually classified as *flat grants*. This method has been used in allocating federal appropriations to the land-grant college in the states, to agricultural experiment stations, and to the agricultural extension service.

In some appropriations for federal aid, the legislation indicates that Congress may have feared that state and local funds for the same purpose might be reduced as federal funds were received, so *matching-funds* requirements to induce them to continue or increase their support were written into the law. Typical of this matching method is the

federal aid for vocational education. On the average, however, the state and local funds for vocational education in recent years have been four to five times as much as the federal funds.

Frequently, Congress has appropriated funds to finance the full *cost of an educational program* resulting in the establishment and operation of educational services which are regarded as the exclusive responsibility of the federal government. This is true for such educational projects as the military academies, veterans' education, and certain others.

Other methods have included the apportionment of federal funds to meet a federal obligation, such as *payments in lieu of taxes* on federally owned property, funds allocated as *equalization aid* to provide greater assistance to the financially weaker areas, funds paid to cover the *cost of tuition* and other education expenses of individuals, and funds granted in accordance with *contracts for services* on research programs in various colleges, universities, and industries.

Two or more methods of distributing federal funds for education are often combined. For instance, the funds allocated for school lunches are determined in three stages which employ three different methods. Congress adopts the methods for each aid which appear to be most effective in obtaining the maximum educational value from each appropriation.

In addition to a consideration of methods of distribution, the purposes of distribution are significant. General purpose aid is that which is to be used for the general program of public education. Special aids distribution would include the funds allocated for such uses as vocational education, school lunch services, and various fellowship programs.

Grade levels of the educational programs which have been assisted by federal funds are interesting. The earliest grants of lands were for the establishment of common schools. Later grants were made for the establishment of colleges. Beginning in 1917 funds have been provided for vocational education in the secondary grades and for some years after 1933, emergency funds were provided for various levels of education including nursery, kindergarten, elementary, secondary, higher, and adult education. Also, since 1935, substantial amounts have been allocated for school lunches in the elementary and secondary schools.

OF VITAL INTEREST

A study of federal assistance as administered and distributed by certain of the government departments is of continued interest to public administrators, educators, legislators, and citizen committees. A study of the amounts expended in all states and territories during 1954–55 by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare shows a total of $402,758,000, in round numbers. Of this sum—se-

lecting from the detailed accounting—approximately $5,052,000 went to the support of the land-grant colleges. For "aid in federally affected areas" school-house construction took $120,953,000 and maintenance and operation of schools, $81,860,000. Vocational education below college grade called for the expenditure of $30,350,000 and vocational rehabilitation, $24,000,000.

Turning to the funds allotted to the states and territories for programs of federal assistance to education administered by the Department of Agriculture, it can be noted that the total expended in 1954–55 was $224,786,000, again in round numbers. Important among the expenditures in the programs of this department were allotments to the agriculture experiment stations of $15,734,000, and to cooperative agriculture extension services of $40,000,000. The school lunch part of this accounting is divided into three parts. Under the National School Lunch Act, the cash distribution was $69,142,000 and under commodity distribution, $83,136,000. For the special school-milk program this department expended $17,224,000.

Many inquiries about federal aid for education pertain to the amount allocated to a certain state, indicating that the interest in the extent and adequacy of federal assistance for education has grown in recent years. Educators, legislators, and citizen committees make inquiries concerning the amount "our" state has received for school lunches, for the education of veterans, and for numerous other educational services. The answers to these questions may be found by a study of the detailed reports of the various agencies, but here is summarized, by states and in round numbers, the total of all federal funds spent for education in 1954–55, by states and territories.

Ala.	$41,637,000	Ohio	44,049,000
Ariz.	9,690,000	Okla.	34,815,000
Ark.	21,781,000	Ore.	12,631,000
Calif.	131,625,000	Penn.	60,457,000
Colo.	18,262,000	R.I.	7,642,000
Conn.	15,484,000	S.C.	22,350,000
Del.	2,071,000	S.D.	7,456,000
Fla.	34,969,000	Tenn.	33,291,000
Ga.	43,963,000	Tex.	83,928,000
Idaho	5,919,000	Utah	13,861,000
Ill.	50,130,000	Vt.	2,900,000
Ind.	26,269,000	Va.	39,070,000
Iowa	20,247,000	Wash.	31,168,000
Kan.	18,388,000	W.Va.	13,012,000
Ky.	23,869,000	Wis.	22,438,000
La.	30,401,000	Wyo.	2,946,000
Me.	6,169,000	D.C.	17,079,000
Md.	14,476,000	Alaska	6,630,000
Mass	31,000,000	Canal Zone	3,015,000
Mich.	37,275,000	Hawaii	5,490,000
Minn.	24,325,000	Puerto Rico	9,095,000
Miss.	24,868,000	Virgin Isl.	135,000
Mo.	34,888,000	U.S. Possessions	24,406,000
Mont.	5,896,000	National and others	209,730,000
Neb.	13,667,000	Unallotted	280,000
Nev.	3,159,000		
N.H.	3,948,000		
N.J.	19,480,000		
N.M.	12,881,000		
N.Y.	76,388,000		
N.C.	38,207,000		
N.D.	7,370,000		

The "grand total" as distributed in federal funds for education by the several departments and funds was —for the year 1954–55— $1,561,573,914. •

Alarm in the Ranks

The Soviet Challenge and Secondary Education in the United States

I. L. KANDEL

In The Educational Forum

IT is significant that in less than a year the challenge of the U.S.S.R. has succeeded in directing attention to the deficiencies of American secondary education which critics at home have been unable to arouse over a period of more than a quarter of a century. Generally the Soviet challenge has taken the form of creating alarm at both the speed and the standards achieved in preparing scientists and engineers for economic and military developments in the U.S.S.R. It has directed attention to the inadequate number and preparation of prospective engineers and scientists in this country.

But the significance of the challenge lies in the fact that it has awakened the American public to a realization of the inadequate provision of science instruction in the high schools and the poor standards of attainment. A still more important result will have been attained if the conditions revealed in the status of science instruction are considered as symptomatic of the conditions that prevail in most other subjects—mathematics, foreign languages, English, and history. Information on the inadequate achievements in these subjects has been available for many years only to be ignored by the public and by professional educators alike.

I. L. Kandel, a former Editor of School and Society, *is Professor Emeritus at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, and at University of Manchester (England). Reported from* The Educational Forum, *XXI (November, 1956), 27–37.*

The tendency of educators has been to push ahead and conquer new frontiers without taking the trouble to do any "mopping up." The educational movement has been from one frontier to another—from cardinal principles to subjects of social and controversial significance, and then to life adjustment programs. The important goal has not been to awaken students to "visions of excellence" but to find out what some think is palatable and then feed it to all students irrespective of their abilities and interest. The great obstacle to the progress of secondary education in its efforts to promote life adjustment has been considered to lie in college-entrance requirements. How inadequate the standards of attainment in these requirements are may be gathered by studying the number of students who are admitted to colleges and drop out in the course of four years on account of inadequate preparation, includ-

ing in that even the ability to read.

It is on this point that the Soviet challenge is really significant. It has drawn attention to the fact that prospective students of science and engineering in the United States are about two years less advanced than the corresponding students in the U.S.S.R.

Now there is no reason to suppose that American adolescents do not have the same intellectual abilities as those of other countries. Able and gifted students in science, and in other subjects as well, are held back by the system. Under an erroneous interpretation of democracy and equality they are all reduced to a common level. To accommodate the system to this interpretation a sort of democracy of subjects has been developed and all subjects taught for the same length of time are held to be equal in value and a quantitative standard has been substituted for a qualitative standard. A system of interchangeable parts, denominated units, has been established and the completion of 14 to 16 units qualifies for a high-school certificate.

Under this system continuity of subjects is sacrificed for variety of choices. Teachers, in any case driven to devote their attention to the average, cannot give the able students the intellectual stimulus that they deserve. Nor is there that kind of pressure from society which prevails elsewhere, for society places a higher premium on the know-how than on the know-what. The fault, of course, does not lie with the teachers so much as with those who are engaged in "selling" education to the public in the form of buildings and innovations.

The challenge of the U.S.S.R. which is spurring the discovery and encouragement of students of ability and promise in the sciences and in mathematics should also direct the attention of the public to the need of a serious study of secondary education to see to it that the ideal of equality of educational opportunity should be so defined in practice that every student receives the kind of education to which his abilities entitle him and is stimulated to work up to the limit of those abilities. The task of educators is to find out what a student can do and to help him to do it. For this task there are available numerous tests of individual differences in interests, abilities, and aptitudes. The real issue for a democratic system of education is not to emphasize selectivity but the distribution of education so that what is known of individual differences of ability is really put into practice but in a common framework of social allegiances.

Achievements of scholarship in the humanities, in the social sciences, and in the pure sciences under the conditions which now exist in American secondary education are surprising. But when one considers the number of students and scholars involved in these achievements in relation to the size of the population, one can only surmise how much more could be achieved if

opportunities were provided for the development of each individual according to his abilities. This would require two conditions, however: first, an appreciation of the social, cultural, and political value of such achievements to the nation and the world, and a realization that the "know-how" which stems from the anti-intellectualist tradition is dependent today on the "know-what" and its development; second, an organization that provides for the discovery and appropriate education of students who by their abilities can contribute to the advancement of the "know-what."

The present demand for the discovery and encouragement of students of ability in the sciences is to be welcomed, if only because it directs attention to a weak aspect of the American school system. But it would be disastrous if other areas of intellectual activity were sacrificed in favor of the sciences. If the present campaign to encourage the trend toward specialization in the sciences, pure and applied, continues to be carried on successfully, the cultural lag will be still further widened, and, while man learns to control the universe, he will fail to learn how to control or interpret himself.

There is another factor that will make the situation in secondary education still more serious in the near future. This is referred to as "the tidal wave" of students to pass on from the high schools to the colleges. When that takes place, the difficulties will be increased by the inordinate number of students, on the one hand, and the serious problem of securing an adequate number of qualified teachers in the high schools and in the colleges. Already the large classes taught by teachers who are inadequately prepared threatens a further dilution of standards. But the difficulties will become still more aggravated because the mere increase in numbers is allowed to continue in the names of democracy and of equality of opportunity, which tend to be interpreted in quantitative rather than in qualitative terms.

AUTOMATION?

To meet the increase in the number of students, both in the high schools and in colleges, there are already heard proposals to employ master teachers and assistants or aides and to elaborate various types of gadgets (teaching aids) to take the place of real teachers. It almost looks as though the idea of automation is being applied to education because of a failure to understand what the function of a teacher at any level of education should be. The analogy of doctors' aides, nurses' aides, technician aides, cannot be applied to education.

Critics usually are written off as enemies of education or as unable to understand the philosophy represented by new trends in education. And it may be true that the schools today have given the public what it wants. But members of a profession with expert knowledge of the history and philosophy of their fields

of specialization have the duty of leading the public and of appealing to its good sense rather than following the ways of the marketplace, or, to use another analogy, prescribing "placebos" for it. Public opinion needs to be educated as much on what is good education as on the desirability of providing adequate financial support.

THE WEAKNESSES

Consider for a moment such subjects as have been considered essential elements in a high-school program. The Fund for the Advancement of Education reported in a pamphlet on *Teachers for Tomorrow* (1955) that 49 percent of the high schools did not offer a foreign language, 23 percent did not give instruction in physics or chemistry, and 24 percent did not have geometry on their programs. Where the subjects are offered, requirements can be completed in one or one and a half years. This fact should be contrasted with the now frequently cited Soviet schools where major subjects are continued throughout the secondary-school course, and this is the common practice in the academic programs in most foreign countries. The weakness of American secondary education is not due only to its shorter duration but stems from the adoption of the quantitative measure at the beginning of the century. And as time went on even the appropriate combination of subjects into courses has disappeared. It is probably a consequence of the absence of cohesion and unity that American students, when asked whether they know a certain subject, will invariably answer that they have "had" it (and have recovered from it as if it had been a disease!).

The challenge of the U.S.S.R. is to be welcomed. But it would be a mistake to conclude that the nation's need is only to secure more and better trained scientists and engineers. The deficiencies to which the challenge directs attention have not been ignored by American critics and students of comparative education. They have long recognized that the point at issue is the urgent need to devote more attention to the quality of education and to make adequate provision for students of ability in the academic subjects, without, however, neglecting the legitimate demands of those whose abilities lie elsewhere.

The distribution of education so that each student can develop his abilities to the fullest degree is only one part of the issue now before the country as a result of the Soviet challenge; the other is the recruiting and preparation of a body of teachers commensurate with the importance of secondary education. For it is essentially the responsibility of a body of well-prepared members of the teaching profession to reconcile the two American traditions, the Jeffersonian and the Jacksonian—the education of all future citizens and of those who promise to contribute most by the fullest development of their intellectual abilities. ●

How Effective Is It?

Foreign Language in the Elementary School

ANNE S. HOPPOCK

In NJEA Review

PRESSURES on the elementary school to teach a second language are mounting. Led by the Modern Language Association of America, using the cryptic battle cry FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School), teachers of foreign languages have sent out the fleet to invade the shores of the elementary-school curriculum. The *FL Newsletter* of the Association reports each new beachhead with triumphant headlines.

But many people in elementary education take a distinctly dim view of the campaign. They do not quarrel with the belief that it is desirable for Americans to become bilingual. Nevertheless they doubt that organized instruction, even in the terms of this particular goal, is appropriate. They reflect that unless more impressive results can be demonstrated at the elementary-school level, the time and money are hardly justified.

Children in the elementary school *are* a captive audience. They have no choice of courses. This creates the temptation to look outward (or downward) rather than inward and jump to the conclusion that if the learning of a second language is the problem, the solution is to catch the children younger. If carried to its logical conclusions, this idea might lead us to include football, driver education, or Shakespeare in the elementary-school curriculum. But, proponents of FLES argue, this does not follow. For, say they, in the case of foreign language, research proves that the elementary school is the best place to begin.

Anne S. Hoppock is Assistant Director of Elementary Education, New Jersey State Department of Education. Reported from NJEA Review, *XXX (November, 1956), 128–29, 133–35.*

"Research proves" has a weighty ring and to hold out against an innovation which "research proves" to be "best" is to run the danger of being called either ignorant or reactionary. However, the skeptic must ask, "What research proves what?" and to insist that values and principles as well as statistics enter into decisions.

Research may prove that many elementary-school children have learned some elements of a foreign language easily. The children can count to 20 or say "good morning" in Spanish; they can sing a song in French and speak and respond to simple directions. But this is not to say they can use the language to think with, or that they can communicate in the language with a non-English speaking person.

The young child may acquire many words in a second language but it is a mistake to think that he learns it as a mode of communication in the sense he does his native tongue. A child learns to speak his own language in order to supply basic needs, to get food when he is hungry, to find refuge when he is afraid, to seek companionship when he is lonely. Unless he lives in another culture where he really needs a second language to communicate, it is doubtful if he learns it in any permanent or functional sense.

Other sweeping assertions are frequently made as supporting evidence of the desirability of instruction in a second language in the elementary school. However, if assumptions such as these are supported by research, the findings have not come to our attention:

. . . that children who are given organized instruction in a language will thereby learn to admire and respect the people of the world who speak that language.

. . . that world peace will be furthered. (Note that our most crucial need is for peaceful relations with people who speak Arabic, Chinese, and Russian.)

. . . that, if they start early, appreciably more children will continue to study languages throughout the high school and college years.

. . . that at the conclusion of high school (and college) students who start early will be much further along. (In one school system, pupils who had six years of instruction in French before entering high school are placed in second-year French classes. In other words, six years of instruction set the children ahead only one year.)

Assumptions such as these should be tested before extravagant claims are made. It is easy to confuse opinion with research-validated facts. And it is fascinating to find that research often seems available to "prove" that the same practice is both good and bad. For example, study of the literature gives some indication that:

Bilingualism in young children tends to retard their learning of the mother tongue.

Some children with language disabilities are further hampered academically and emotionally by instruction in a second language.

Older pupils learn a foreign language more rapidly than do younger children. The childhood years may have the advantage in linguistic flexibility but the late high-school and college years are the period of greatest learning ability in general and are closer to the time of possible use.

Probably the truth is that dependable research is insufficient to indicate conclusively the "best" age to introduce a second language.

The "best" age to begin may be later than we think. The experience of the armed services gives strong support to the idea that young adults with strong motivation learn languages much more efficiently than any other age group. For example, service men currently in training for duty which requires

facility in foreign languages can begin conversing in an Asiatic language after from four to six weeks of instruction. Granted that the men are selected, the training intensive, and the groups small, one can safely hypothesize that strong motivation and good methods of teaching are our best hope rather than adding years of instruction to those which already have proved ineffective.

What is the basic question? Does research in human development and learning strongly indicate that a second language should be taught in the elementary school? In our opinion, it does not.

Children in a spirit of play respond to the learning of the vocabulary of a foreign language just as they enjoy the lingo of "pig latin." But the program serves no genuine need of children. Real motivation—that is, the need to communicate, is lacking. If "learning" is defined as "learning to use," it is doubtful if the children can be said to learn.

"Use or lose" applies here. Relatively few adults who have studied a foreign language in high school or college, even those who became fairly fluent, are able to communicate in the language after a few years have elapsed. They lose the skill because they do not use it. How ridiculous to assume that young children who are years further away from use will be better off.

In the final analysis, values must weigh heavily in reaching conclusions regarding the desirability of an organized program. Even if the claims made for the efficiency of early teaching were shown to be valid, school people and parents must assess the total needs and resources of the school and community, and ask, "Does this program have priority?"

Let's not fool ourselves that the program does not require time and money. If an itinerant teacher is responsible, as would be the case in most schools, how else can the program operate except in regularly scheduled periods which, we are told, should be daily, or several times a week? Where is the time to come from? From the "3 R's?" From the arts? From creative experiences with the children's own language? From science, the social studies? From outdoor play?

As for money, one suburban district figures that it would cost nearly $42,000 to provide instruction from grades one through six. This estimate is modest since it is based on minimum salary figures. Train classroom teachers to do it, or use records? Can we assume that the speech of a teacher trained in a summer workshop will be a fit model for children to copy, or that records are good for anything but an interesting experience in hearing how people of other nations speak?

In our opinion, children in the elementary school are better off for having informal, meaningful experiences with several languages in the setting of the cultures involved than to be given formal instruction in one language. Rather than to de-

velop facility with one language, the purpose is to develop interest in several languages, to realize that people everywhere communicate common feelings and experiences although the words they use have different sounds. Many resources are available for this purpose. The creative planning of elementary-school people and language specialists might well be directed toward discovering and using these resources effectively.

DATA IS AVAILABLE

In seeking resources, we do not have to start from scratch. We already know that there are many children in our classrooms today whose first language is a foreign language. We know that usually there are citizens in the community, and visitors to the community, who speak one or more foreign languages. Records, radio, and television programs are available. Picture-story books of great charm and in great numbers are available. The language arts, social studies, and music all offer opportunities for meaningful experiences with languages.

It is in face-to-face contacts, however, that language becomes a "living experience." It lives when it is used to communicate. If, in the process, those communicating learn to like and respect one another, then we can feel reasonably sure we are on the right track. For example:

Carmen, a shy, nine-year-old Puerto Rican girl enrolled in a school. The children and their teacher planned how they could help Carmen to quickly learn English. At first there was only an exchange of the most needed words. Gradually the idea developed that Carmen might teach the children some Spanish. So the learning of Spanish and English proceeded happily side by side. As Carmen learned the ways of working and playing in the United States, the children were becoming acquainted with the culture from which Carmen came. The children were not mastering Spanish, but they were using it to learn to know Carmen. This experience in getting acquainted was so fruitful that the children decided to share it with the rest of the school in an assembly program.

Contrast this with the 20-minute lesson in Spanish by the teacher who comes and goes.

Our purpose in this statement has been to share our thinking on the subject of foreign language study on the basis of our own study. It has led us to believe that:

(1) In the elementary school, children should have many vital experiences with several cultures including the language of these cultures. Thus the elementary-school curriculum becomes a broad-based readiness program resulting in interest and readiness for more intensive study.

(2) Leaders in our high schools should intensify their efforts to spread widely the leaven of creative teaching which makes language study in some of the best high schools truly a "living experience."●

The Misplaced Persons

The Technical Manpower Shortage—an Answer from the High School

THEODORE S. COOPER

In The Mathematics Teacher

DURING the past few years a number of articles have appeared in magazines, newspapers, and professional journals concerning the growing technical manpower shortage. Authorities from industry, business, and various professions have produced, collected, analyzed, re-analyzed, and commented on an impressive number of statistics which show the graveness of the problem and *why* it exists. Far too many of these authorities reach the conclusion that much of the fault lies with our public high schools; more specifically, with inadequacies of the high-school science or mathematics programs.

Without question, the United States does face a serious present and future shortage of technicians and engineers; however, the problem will not be solved by trying to place the blame or shifting the responsibility to any one particular educational or societal agency. Everyone has a stake in the outcome; hence, everyone must share equally in the responsibility for what has happened in the past and what is to be done at present and in the future. Far more will be accomplished if authorities from colleges, industries, and the professions will direct their efforts toward correction of shortcomings within their own ranks rather than devoting their time to criticizing the secondary schools.

Theodore S. Cooper is a teacher in the Denver Public Schools, Colorado. Reported from The Mathematics Teacher, *XLIX (October, 1956), 435–41.*

The recent publicity campaigns by industry and the colleges to interest more young people in science and mathematics, while showing good intentions, may have intensified the problem rather than helping to solve it. This seems due to the usual lack of communication between high schools and other agencies which have determined, by the usual American philosophy of quantity, that to have more technicians we must encourage more and more students to enter high-school courses in science and mathematics.

For as long as the American high school has existed, science and mathematics teachers have worked to refine methods of selecting, encouraging, and training students who appeared to have scientific potential and interest. In the past few years, increasing importance has been attached to these procedures, partly due to the greater societal interest

in science and partly due to other factors.

Giving encouragement is important, but it should be given to "the right individuals at the right time and directed toward achievement of the right goals for these individuals."

A second and more serious counseling procedure exists, over which the classroom teacher has little control. This is the periodic over-enrolment in mathematics and science classes caused directly or indirectly by publicity campaigns of over enthusiastic pressure groups outside the school who suddenly find themselves in need of greater numbers of technically trained personnel. In their rush for quantity, these groups seem unaware of, or unconcerned about, the problem they create in the secondary school in the form of large numbers of badly qualified students demanding admission to mathematics and science classes. Do these groups really believe that the quantity gained is worth the quality sacrificed?

If little is to be gained by encouraging additional students to enter high-school mathematics and science courses, what can be done to increase our supply of technically trained personnel? From the viewpoint of the high school, at least three major points of attack seem feasible: (1) alteration of high-school policies and procedures; (2) alteration of college policies and procedures; and (3) improvement in financial-aid procedures.

First, the high school should re-examine its own role with respect to the potential technicians already enrolled in preparatory courses. If mathematics and science teachers, with the aid of counselors, can establish that some particular student has both scientific ability and interest but is failing to pass courses required for college entrance due to immaturity or other factors, it may be possible to establish procedures which will keep open the "road to the future" for this student. For example, it might help if communications were established with the college of the student's choice so that an exchange of information about the particular student might occur. If the selected college will accept the student, regardless of his high-school achievement—and is prepared to help him from this point forward—the chances for his success are good. If the selected college is unwilling or unprepared to accept the student on such terms, his counselors and teachers should help him to select another college.

There is great need for development and expansion of the counseling and placement programs in high schools. A real attempt should be made to explore the personality and interests of each individual student, to give him facts and information which will help him to select, more intelligently, the career best suited to his particular qualifications. Much of the misplacement found in college classes in mathematics and engineering might have been prevented by adequate counseling in the high school. Much of

it will be prevented in the future, and it should be noted that such counseling will probably bring about a decrease in the number of students leaving high school to enter technical schools, but the net result will be fewer misfits in college classes.

An important point of attack is that of giving increased financial aid to high-school graduates planning to go to college. To avoid the overlapping of aid programs and to assure a maximum return from funds provided, a growing number of individuals and organizations now are beginning to utilize the procedure of allowing high-school officials to select recipients for such funds in respect to real needs. It is suggested that this procedure and others of a similar nature be explored more fully before large quantities of money are expended which will do little to increase the actual numbers of trained technicians. If industries really want to increase the number of their technicians, they will find it imperative to aid students with lesser qualifications in addition to the aid already being given to the very gifted.

From the viewpoint of the high school, it would appear that colleges and universities are in a position to do a great deal toward overcoming the manpower shortage.

Taking their inspiration from programs being developed at such schools as Cornell University, colleges can create mathematics and science courses which will seek out and help to overcome the deficiencies of certain students. Rather than adopting the snobbish or impractical attitude that they "will not fool with students who did not make good in high school," institutions of higher learning must come to recognize that such factors as "extended immaturity" are making it impossible for the high school to prepare students for college as adequately as once was possible. To cope with this condition, colleges will need to develop more flexible mathematics programs.

Even more than in the high school, there is great need at the college level to develop extensive programs in counseling, guidance, and placement. This does not mean that the service of the classroom teacher should be limited to being able to advise the student on what course to take next! Sometimes, it might become essential that subject matter be sacrificed for the student —absolute heresy.

Finally, we must reiterate the timeworn plea to put experienced *teachers* into college classrooms, especially in the beginning courses. Give these *teachers* fulltime teaching and counseling responsibilities free of all research and publishing requirements (unless they are concerned with improving teaching techniques and materials for their own classroom). And, give these teachers *equal compensation and equal recognition.* It is conceivable that this single change could produce an adequate supply of engineers and technicians for now and in the future. •

Too Soon for Evidence

Teacher Aides—Experiment or Expedient?

CHARLES E. HOWELL

In Illinois Education

IN a period of crisis, it is characteristic that any group will turn to whatever methods seem to present a way out of its difficulties. This is as true in the area of public education as in any other area. Unfortunately, it frequently happens that this seeking of a way out as often turns in the direction of immediate expediency as it does in that of objective experimentation.

The present crisis in education—compounded out of a mixture of greatly increased enrolments, shortage of classrooms, shortage of teachers, and rising costs—affords an instance in point. There is an overwhelming temptation to turn to some kind of a magical gadget which will simultaneously make up for the shortage of teachers without in any way endangering the educational opportunity of the increasing number of young people, and at very little added cost.

During the current period a variety of these gadgets have presented themselves: the use of television in the classroom, not as a supplement to but as a substitute for additional teachers; the extension of the use of classrooms by means of half-day programs; the use of "teacher aides" on either a voluntary or a low-paid, admittedly unskilled or semiskilled basis. In the quest for more teaching efficiency, this seeking has become the watchword; and as in all crises, expediency—in some instances at least—appears to have given way to experiment.

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In the field of teacher aides, there has been, because of the nature of the need, an evidence of a desire to find an acceptable substitute for additional teachers, through the improvement of nonprofessional teacher aides. A careful search of the available literature reveals no *objective* evidence which will either confirm these trials as being an acceptable solution or find them wanting.

Certainly the most publicized of these "experiments" in the use of teacher aides has been that at Bay City, Mich., reported on in the *NEA Journal* of May, 1956, and at considerable length in the *Journal of Teacher Education* for June, 1956. The conclusions in these reports seem to be rather varied. There seems to be an endorsement of the general idea on the part of those not intimately connected with the teaching profession.

Typical of this is the statement by Arthur D. Morse in *Colliers* for Nov. 11, 1955, in which he says: "(The Bay City plan is) a novel plan to make more effective use of the teachers already on hand. Boys and girls in classes with teacher aides are learning faster; and polls show teachers, pupils, and parents almost universally approve."

The White House Conference on Education in 1955 set forth the certainly more conservative point of view when in its conclusions it stated: "We feel that at this time the use of teacher aides requires further study and experimentation, before it can be recommended as a means of meeting the teacher shortage."

Perhaps the extreme negative point of view is expressed by Charles W. Johnson, the president of Fisk University, in the statement that "Keeping classes small by hiring poor teachers simply enables the teacher to communicate his mediocrity in an intimate environment."

Our chief interest in the Bay City project at the moment is to have an awareness of its existence, rather than its acceptance at this time as a guide for repetition in other communities. We ought also to accept it as an example of the need for very careful evidence of an objective nature in connection with the effect that it has on other similar efforts to meet the crisis in education—not only on scholarship, as that may be measured by achievement tests, but on other aspects of the personality development of the individual student. We ought to be cognizant of the potential effects on leadership among the students; on the professional attitude of the teachers; on the degrees of complacency which may arise in the community by virtue of the fact that "something" is being done, without realizing that this something may be either expedient or experiment without necessarily providing the answer to the problem.

It is perfectly true that the teaching profession has tended to accept the notion of small classes as evidence of a good educational system. On this, too, there is as yet no really objective evidence on any large-scale basis. We need to be ready to try something and willing to accept the objective results of our trying. We need to be equally reluctant to believe that the mere trying has brought about success. The teacher-aide plan may be one answer to at least as good an education for increased numbers of children. •

OUR staff has developed a strong conviction that, while the teacher-aide program can be successful in the crisis situation, there exist certain dangers in its promiscuous application and careless administration.—*Paul Briggs,* Bay City superintendent, in his report on the project.

1957

A Far-Reaching Impact

Communication in Today's Society

WILBUR SCHRAMM

In The National Elementary Principal

COMMUNICATION—whether between human beings, between machines, or between machines and human beings—is an integral part of our lives. Human communication is a—perhaps *the*—fundamental social process. It is the glue that holds society together; the homeostatic fluid that flows among the dynamic organs of society, keeping them in balance. It makes it possible for men to live in groups, and for groups to deal with each other. It makes it possible for society to get quick reports from watchers on the horizon, to reach consensus on what to do about these reports, and to transmit funded culture to new members of the society.

Today one hears of "the communication revolution." Popular usage equates this so-called revolution with the impact of radio and television, or perhaps with the growth of all mass communications. Yet it is obvious that communication has been in a state of revolution for a great many years. The "invention" of printing and the development in their turn of the camera, photo-engraving, the telephone, and the phonograph have made possible what we have come to call "mass" communication. DeForest's triode vacuum tube in 1907 opened the world of radio and television.

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If we had the gift of prophecy, this would be the time to visualize communication as projected into the future. I claim to be no more than a shortsighted prophet, but certainly it is easy for me to predict that over the next 20 years the amount of available communication per capita will increase. This is simply because appetites are not yet satisfied nor capacities reached. We can expect many exciting and important extensions of machine-interposed communication, such as walkie-talkies, phones in cars, individualized radio lengths, and wall television, in the next two decades.

But the most dramatic increase will undoubtedly be in machine-to-machine communication. The energy of this wave has barely been tapped. We are still at the stage of being amazed and pleased when a headlight dims itself, or a door opens when we intercept a beam of light. Before many more years, we shall marvel at factories which are almost wholly automatic, transportation

that guides itself along a roadbed without human steering, automatic banks, and countless machines that take over part of our decision-making for us.

Certainly we can make another statement about the future of communication with relative confidence: there is nothing now to indicate that the units of the industry will grow any smaller. For 150 years, we have had a steady growth in size. Newspapers, for example, have grown from the day when a town of 15,000 had five papers, each averaging 1000 in circulation, to the time when it cannot possibly support more than one daily—circulation 5000. Radio has grown from a laboratory station in a Pittsburgh garage to gigantic stations fed by national networks. There is no sign of reversing this trend. People have learned to demand the kind of services which can only be given by large units. Bigness is here to stay.

Let us suggest some of the effects of mass communication that are visible now and promise to continue.

Our environments are being greatly extended. This is the product, also, of improved transportation. It is sometimes difficult to remember that 100 years ago our foreign news came by ship; that 75 years ago the only way to communicate with someone in another city was by writing a letter. Thirty-five years ago, few expected to hear national election results the night of election, or the voice of the President when elected. Ten years ago, only a few thousands of us had looked into a national nominating convention, or a session of the Congress, or a Rose Bowl game, or a world series, or the Metropolitan Opera. We have had our pick, for years now, of the great music, theater, and music hall of the world. We have lived, through communication, on intimate and immediate terms with great men and great events. All this has come naturally and been taken for granted. My young son, who builds short-wave radios, thinks nothing of hearing in one hour the news from London and Tokyo, music from Switzerland and Hungary, and a lecture from Australia. It is no more a miracle than eggs for breakfast.

But we are expanding our environments at the cost of primary sources. This may not be immediately apparent. Do not more people than before travel in this country and go abroad, you will ask? Indeed they do. But the proportion of primary to secondary sources is declining. When I was young, I was able to see at firsthand in my community most of the processes by which food was grown, by which clothes and shoes were made, by which buildings were erected. I had watched closely the life span of animals. I knew fewer people, but knew them well. I read a lot, but still got most of my drama from seeing life.

My children, I am sure, have seen far more than I had at their age, but they have never seen a

shoe cobbler at work, or a weaver of cloth. They know very little of farm life. They have seen farms in the movies and on television and read about them, of course. They have seen drunks in the movies, but they never knew the town drunk, as I did. They hear far better music than I, but I sang more often around the piano. They have seen all the great heroes of sport and know the big leagues in a way I never did; but I have played at more sports than they have. They read a lot, too. But a large part of the leisure which still remains after reading, they put into machine-interposed media, while I put it into observation and experience. They know far more than I, but some things I knew more intimately and closely than they.

Let us not say that communication has brought about all this change. But certainly communication has played a large part in it. And if the net result has been to substitute secondary sources of information for many primary ones, then the schools must ask whether they have any responsibility for substituting some of these primary experiences.

The communication media affect status relationships in our society. The media have the power of conferring status on those whose names, faces, and voices they make known. The media has the power, expressed or implied, to legitimatize all kinds of individuals and enterprises. This, in turn, seems to call for a more sophisticated approach to reading, hearing, and viewing the mass media, which points back to the obligation of the schools.

The communication media encourages domination of so-called popular art. As Lyman Bryson says, popular art is the art that measures success by the size of its audience and the profit it brings to its makers. The overwhelming burden of the mass media is popular art—the soap operas, the "true" confessions, the uncomic "comic" strips, the "movies of the heart" as L. B. Mayer called them, the "whodunits" and crime dramas, the crooners and their stylized ballads, and the "variety" shows that have so little variety. This is the fare that dominates the mass-media entertainment time of Americans, as news dominates the mass-media information time. What it is doing to us is something we hardly have space to discuss here. But it is apparent that a great deal of identification and displacement is going on between the audience and the characters and events in this kind of art.

Improved communication has brought us a greater proportion of shared experience, suggesting a tendency toward common mores, classlessness, et cetera. Despite the wealth of different kinds of material to choose from in the media, despite the numbers of possible connections on the machine-interposed communications, there are still large common cores of experience which the media furnish. Thanks to organizations like the book clubs or the book digests, incomparably more

Americans than before read the same new books. Thanks to the large magazines, incomparably more Americans than before have read the same ideas and arguments. Thanks to television and the picture magazines, many more of us than ever before have sat in on the same news events. Thanks to radio and television, more of us than ever before have sat in on the same entertainment. Thanks to all the media, we have seen more of each other and of the different mores than ever before.

It may well be that the more popular media tend to emphasize some less desirable mores such as crime, and that impressionable listeners, because they identify with media heroes, tend to learn fads and fashions which may be entirely inappropriate. But the fact remains that by putting this image of behavior in front of so many of us at the same time we are laying the basis for a commonality of conduct and decision, and for an understanding of differences among us. Can the schools make use of this increased commonality?

Mass communication invites an increasing amount of manipulation. This is everywhere evident, not only in the vast amounts of commercial and institutional advertising, but also in the way that individuals and groups have learned to "use" the media to manipulate public opinion. There is no doubt that political figures today can—and many do—increase their influence by skillful use of the newspapers. It is perfectly clear that future users of our mass media must expect attempts at manipulation, and must be prepared for them. This points clearly to a responsibility of the schools.

A reorganization of activities and occupational roles in society is under way. Barring the possibility of large-scale unemployment resulting from automation, it is quite probable that workers will like it. In general, automation results in the upgrading of workers. A larger proportion of workers will have to understand more about the machinery they are working with. A larger proportion of workers will have to understand some of the electronics of automation itself. Given proper planning and continuing prosperity, automation should not make for any considerable work idleness. Instead, it should make for shorter hours of more enjoyable and more prestigeful work. What does this mean to the schools in terms of their responsibility for preparing individuals for this kind of life and work?

We can look forward to a larger component of leisure in human life. It is too easy, of course, to say that in the 19th century the machine replaced our muscles, and that in the 20th it is beginning to do much of our thinking for us. Yet those two statements are true enough that we can certainly look forward to another large saving in human work time, such as occurred in the industrial revolution of the last century. Education will have an opportunity to fill in some of the leisure gained. •

1957

A Working Plan

Community Use of School Facilities Made Easy

MITCHELL SOSO

In The School Executive

COMMUNITY use of school facilities is latent with possibilities for developing better public relations between the schools and the community at large. The school facility can range from a classroom to a football stadium; or it may be the auditorium, a kindergarten room, the home economics laboratory, or the farm mechanics shop.

In California, a landmark in the community use of school facilities was the enactment of the Civic Center Act in 1913. Since that time the Act has been amended from time to time and today provides that "each school shall be a civic center in which the citizens, parent-teacher associations, Campfire Girls, Boy Scout troops, farmer organization, clubs, and associations formed for recreational, educational, political, economic, artistic or moral activities of the school district may engage in supervised recreational activities, and where they may meet from time to time as they may desire to discuss any subjects or questions which, in their judgment, appertain to the educational, political, economic, artistic, and moral interests in the community in which they reside."

School boards in California are given broad leeway also in meeting the costs of operating the schools as civic centers. They may meet the costs by use of the school district's general funds, they may make a charge to defray the cost of this operation, or they may cause a tax to be levied.

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I have tried to formulate some general considerations here for operating schools as civic centers. These are:

1. The Legal Situation. The school administrator should be familiar with legal requirements set up through the school or education code of his state. Administration of the school facility for civic use should be consonant not only with state law, but also with the policy of the local board of education.

2. Policy. The major objectives of the community-use program should be stated. Misunderstandings may arise when a charge is made against some group when others are entitled to free use of the school facilities. A moment taken to clarify the conditions of use often prevents disagreements arising from an uninformed public.

3. The schedule. A master schedule should be kept at each school

for all use other than ordinary classroom use. All school use, whether arising directly out of the instructional program or out of cocurricular activities should have precedence. One person should be given definite responsibility for scheduling the date and the hour the facility is to be used, recording not only the applicant's name, but also the name of the person responsible for the applicant. When each principal is given major responsibility for scheduling the use of his school the usual result is directness and ease in the patron's application procedures.

4. The Facility. The school personnel can render a signal service to civic groups by helping them select the proper facility. Sometimes the room requested by the applicant is the worst possible choice. By taking a little extra time the school administrator can often select the facility with the right number of seats and the best lighting and acoustics for the applicant's special needs.

5. Costs and Services. School personnel should make explicit what costs, if any, are to be met by the applicant, and what services are to be rendered by the school district. Policies and practices vary regarding community use and patrons should be fully informed. Some districts might provide a school facility "free of charge" if no extra custodial services are required, whereas charges might be made if special stage lighting, microphones, or additional parking facilities are required by the applicant.

6. Accidents and Misuse of Property. The school district should indicate what liability falls on the applicant if he misuses school property. The school administrator should also expressly state the liability involved to the applicant, and in fact a waiver should be signed, absolving the school district of any and all liabilities.

7. Application Procedure. So that the application procedure is direct and simple, the application form should be complete and readily understandable. In California, for example, it includes the "non-communist" oath. In the writer's opinion, the above mentioned liability waiver should also be one of the form's essential features. This liability waiver, patterned for each district's needs, could very well follow the standard "save harmless clause."

8. Custodial Services. The custodian should be well informed about the community use of school facilities. He should know exactly what services are expected of him, and should be trained to perform his duties in a courteous, thorough, and firm manner. This responsibility is often a heavy one and if well discharged can considerably enhance the school's prestige.

The movement toward improvement of community living, one of the major objectives of our educational program, can be greatly accelerated by the development of an efficient program which encourages the use of school facilities by many and varied groups. Thus the schools *can help* the community *be* a community. •

Other Countries; Other Problems

Secondary Education in France and Western Germany

MAX SCHROEDER

In California Journal of Secondary Education

Max Schroeder is Director of Secondary Education in the State of Rheinland-Pfalz, Mainz, Germany. Reported from California Journal of Secondary Education, *XXXI (November, 1956), 428–31.*

WHAT is "secondary education" in France and Germany? The French expressions *enseignement secondaire* or *enseignement du deuxième degré* do not convey the same idea as the English expression "secondary education." Although the second French expression literally means a second state of education, it practically is used to designate the academic part of secondary education, the *lycées* and *collèges* corresponding to the German *Hoehere Schulen.* For in both countries the educational system is not based on horizontal layers of age groups, but is vertically structured according to the different categories.

There is of course a common base of a four to six years' primary school. But when we speak of secondary education, meaning all education following the age of primary education, we have to include the upper grades of the elementary school.

As to the number of pupils, that is the most important part of secondary education, because it includes three-fourths of the age group. It is full-time compulsory general education for all children up to fourteen who do not go to the more academic schools. As there is no definite break for those who pass from the lower to the upper section of the elementary school, this part of school education is generally not considered as a definite stage of "secondary" education.

"Secondary schools" in the French and German sense of the word are selective schools. Selection is no longer made from a social point of view—at least as far as the public schools are concerned—since normally education is free. Pupils are selected according to previous performance at school and generally by entrance examinations, sometimes supplemented by mental and other tests, at the age of 10 or 11.

There are two types of secondary schools, the *cours complémentaires* or *Mittelschulen* which, as to the structure of administration, form part of the elementary-school system and take pupils in France for four years, in Germany for six years, after the primary school period, offering them an advanced general education. Then there are the *collèges et lycées* or *Gymnasien* which

form a separate branch of the educational system, offering in France a seven-years' course and in Germany a nine-years' course of instruction. It is this latter kind of academic school, in both countries, which is currently termed "secondary."

They are divided into several types of branches—not because they prepare for different professions but because instruction is given by emphasizing one or the other side of the curriculum. In all types students have to take a great number of required subjects, normally including mathematics and two or more languages. As selection in these schools is continued each year, only part—in Germany only one-third—of the pupils reach the top classes and pass the final examinations—the *Baccalauréat* or *Reifepruefung (Abitur)*—which entitle them to admission to all universities and similar institutions of higher education.

While in Germany all education up to the age 14 is nonvocational, in France children of 11 may be admitted to *enseignement technique*, i.e., schools which take them up to the same age of the *lycées* or *collèges*, but give them an education which includes technical or vocational subjects. For children who have finished an elementary school at the age of 14—the end of compulsory school age in France—there are *centres d'apprentissage* which offer them a three-years' course of vocational instruction. In Germany all young people between 14 and 17, who are not pupils in a full-time school, must attend a *Berufsschule*, a general vocational school with part-time compulsory instruction, taking the pupils for one day a week and combining general education with vocational training.

Besides this there are full-time advanced vocational or technical schools—admitting pupils after a period of practical apprenticeship and giving them a specialized vocational training for the duration of one, two, or three years according to the type of school and vocation. Successful students in these schools can be admitted—by examination—to higher technical institutions and universities, just as in France those who pass the *baccalaureat technique* can continue their studies at the *Enseignement technique supérieur* or at the *Universités et Grandes Ecoles*.

This short survey of secondary education immediately reveals some of its chief problems—problems which concern French and German educators and other leaders. Is it justifiable to select and separate children at the age of 10 or 11? Are the methods of selection appropriate? Does the limitation to fixed, compulsory subjects leave enough space for free individual development? What is to become of the large number of pupils who are not promoted with their age group and who have to leave school without completion of a definite course? Does the school in its present structure meet the requirements of our technological age and of a world that after two disastrous wars has completely changed the political,

economic, and social structure of these countries?

In 1953, the German Social Democratic Party declared that "the German school system does not satisfy the social structure of our century and the requirements of modern education." It is opposed to the "comprehensive" type of organization of secondary education, but "the whole system must become more elastic. . . . There must be opportunities for transfer from one type of school to another."

THE MIDDLE PERIOD

In 1955, the French Ministry of Education proposed a "middle period" for children from 11 to 13 for an "orientation" for all further education. This would postpone entrance into the *lycée* or *collège* two years for those apt for academic instruction. Also vocational courses, beginning at 13, would be available in courses from three to six years in length.

This general tendency toward an enlargement and improvement of facilities for technical education does not imply willingness to begin specialization at an earlier age. On the contrary, the Ministry's statement warns emphatically against early specialization. Besides this dislike for early specialization there is a growing antipathy against encyclopedic instruction and a pronounced tendency to develop and increase the students' discriminative faculties and intellectual spontaneity, their activity and efficiency, by concentration on a limited scope of subjects and "exemplary" study. "By deep, thorough, and active study of a limited number of exemplary subjects youth must be given a solid education which will prove its value in dealing with unknown subjects and in new situations."

These are clear definitions which prove that, in spite of the maintenance of traditional forms without, an important change is going on within. More decisive than teaching any amount of facts and skills is active education—enabling man to think, decide, and act independently.

Thus, in these countries, the scope of school education is broadening. There is regular instruction in "citizenship." Teachers take their classes to meetings of Parliament and to other public institutions. Community excursions, study trips at home and abroad, international exchange visits, prolonged stays in the *Schullandheim*—school-home in the country where teacher and pupils live together—complete and supplement traditional education.

The aim of education, especially of secondary education, is modern man, man of our age, the characteristic of which is a hitherto unknown rapidity of technical, social, and political development, where man finds no more a firm, solid support in a tradition-bound world around him, but where he has to look for and to build up a hold within himself. The new ideal of education is man himself as a personality, able to decide by himself and ready to act by himself. •

Pride in Their Heritage

Kindergarten Centennial

ETHEL G. PECH

In Wisconsin Journal of Education

THE kindergarten is now 100 years old in America. Wisconsin is justifiably proud of this event for it was in our state that some of the first kindergartens were established in the form of private, as well as public, school groups.

It was in Watertown, Wisconsin, where the first windblown seed of Friedrich Froebel's idea fell on fertile soil in our country. Nourished by the loving care of Mrs. Carl Schurz, a young mother who had previously studied with Froebel in Germany, the first private kindergarten in our country became a reality. Many years before that Froebel had opened his first school for preschool children in Blankenburg, Germany, and called it a kindergarten, or "a garden where children grow." In his enthusiasm he enlisted the interest of others, and started training schools for teachers.

After the Watertown beginning in this country, the desire for more kindergartens became contagious and from that time on enthusiastic educators worked diligently to establish kindergartens in many cities of our country. At first most of them were private, but later many became a part of the public school.

Manitowoc, Wisconsin, was one of the very first cities to catch the spirit of the kindergarten, and we claim to be the first in Wisconsin—

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1873—to establish a kindergarten in a public school and one of the very first in the country.

In planning a kindergarten centennial for Manitowoc, it seemed logical to include mothers in the plans to celebrate the growth of the kindergarten in America. Avid interest resulted in reading and research on the part of a group of mothers and kindergarten teachers of one school. The mothers were naturally interested in learning of the important part which Manitowoc had played in the history of the kindergarten. Relatives of Miss Richter, our first kindergarten teacher, who died in 1941 at the age of 90, were contacted, and interesting bits were gleaned from them as well as from other prominent Manitowoc families whose names were at one time listed on that first kindergarten attendance record in 1873. This small group of mothers, working with the kindergarten teachers, formed the nucleus of a larger culmination, as they later shared with all parents of the city their own

interest in the kindergarten centennial.

An original skit, entitled "A Garden Where Children Grow," prepared and produced by this group of eight mothers, who incidentally are members of Manitowoc's dramatic group, "The Masquers," was presented to the junior, senior, and preschool mothers at the annual spring mothers meeting, and then again to the parents group at an evening performance in October. The audience became observers of a kindergarten session conducted as Frau Schurz might have done 100 years ago. Fatiguing drill or exploitation of the children who took part in the skit was entirely eliminated. A former kindergarten teacher, now a mother, took the part of Frau Schurz. In true kindergarten teacher fashion she was entirely oblivious of her large audience. Moreover, she held the undivided attention of her eight little charges so that they, too, were unmindful of anything except the fun of taking part in the activities. The movement plays, gift block occupation, weaving and sewing cards, were surprisingly in contrast to their present-day kindergarten activities. "Tanta" Marion (the auntie who often helped with the music in the early kindergartens) helped Frau Schurz as the children took part in song and drills.

A SIMPLE SETTING

Costumes with the 1856 look were more simple to provide than one would think. A simple stage-set and some authentic antiques were furnished and trucked by Masquer fathers. Two mothers who had done considerable research brought the historic events to the audience as narrators. Honored guests, nieces of Emily Richter, Manitowoc's first kindergarten teacher, were introduced. The 1856 skit was presented for the first time in the auditorium of the new Andrew Jackson School, offering an interesting contrast of the old and new in the environment for school children. More contrast of equipment and activity was emphasized as the parents were invited to attend a session in their children's new kindergarten room during the next week.

This was but one feature of Manitowoc's salute to the centennial of the kindergarten. Newspaper publicity, including an editorial, stories, and pictures, noted the progress of the kindergarten over 100 years. The skit was run on TV, and slides with sound were shown in other schools. A radio series of five programs during American Education Week presented recordings from our kindergartens. These were some of the features planned by the kindergarten teachers in the inservice session last August.

In the celebration of any centennial, people who are interested stand at a vantage point to look back on what has gone on in the past and then to look ahead for greater accomplishments in the future. Teachers, parents, and administrators everywhere who are enthusiastic about the progress which the kindergarten has made

have reason to be proud and hopeful. They can see that it is eagerly accepted and appreciated by fathers and mothers. That it acts as a needed link between the home and school and a foundation for later school life, explains its firm establishment in the public school system. That qualified young women choose to prepare themselves to become kindergarten teachers indicates something of the substance of the profession. That most every public taxpayer is either a parent, a grandparent, or neighbor of some little child who is enjoying and benefitting by his participation in a kindergarten group has provided reason enough for them to see value for their expenditure.

Even in these times of shortages of teachers, money, and rooms, and oversupplies of children, well-informed boards of education have put forth every effort to protect the kindergarten from being the target for cuts. And where kindergarten needs have been sacrificed because of existing shortages and influxes of children in groups too large to accommodate, it has usually been temporary, with the understanding that they will be restored as soon as conditions permit. As building programs, school budgets, and teacher shortages catch up with pressing needs, we can confidently expect the kindergarten to become available to every child of preschool age. For this is a wise observation, indeed: "This earliest age is the most important one for education, because the beginning decides the manner of progress and the end." •

Froebel and the Kindergarten

ALMOST all the early kindergarten teachers were disciples of Froebel. For decades they leaned on his esthetic philosophy and perpetuated his dogmatic system. Dreaming or leaning, the effect was the same—a method and a system to which the child was made to conform. But this process of forcing conformity was done so beguilingly that few people prior to 1900 realized that the child's mental horizons were being confined to the limits of the inch-square blocks which were standard kindergarten equipment of that day. Gradually, however, a few courageous souls began to question his approach. . . . By 1920, after years of controversy, the rigidly prescribed regimen was giving way to a kindergarten centered in the child. . . . In spite of disagreeing with Froebel at many points, we owe him a great debt. He gave us the blueprint for the kindergarten environment that is still valid today: the friendly, welcoming atmosphere, sunshine, growing things, objects to explore.—Mary E. Heltibridle in *NEA Journal.*

1957

Look Behind the "Wrong" Answers

Thoughts on the Improvement of Instruction

EUGENE STANLEY

In School and Society

ANY instructional practices worthy of the name must consider the uniqueness of the individual and the necessity of the student having an active part in the teaching-learning processes. The most effective learning occurs when the individual has an experience, instead of being merely "exposed" to an experience. The true learning process is experiencing, doing, and reacting.

Acceptance of the foregoing statements compels one to take a fresh look at some of the current educational practices. Those instructional processes oriented toward securing the "right" answers, particularly in the realm of the social sciences, are educationally suspect. But what can be done about the "wrong" answers which we receive so often from students?

The challenge is to see the potential for true instruction in such answers. Though a response may be incorrect, is is potentially better than no response at all.

Much promise may be found in the following suggestions:

Attempt to secure a precise understanding of the student's response. When the responding student agrees that he has been correctly interpreted, then additional progress can be achieved. Note that this inquiry can aid in adding to a student's sense of personal dignity, for when rightly performed he is not put on the defensive and his contribution is accorded status.

Eugene Stanley is a member of the faculty at Morgan State College, Baltimore, Maryland. *Reported from* School and Society, *LXXXIV (October 13, 1956), 118–20.*

Examine and verify the plausibility of the response. The sincere student's response makes "some kind of sense." When he is offered the opportunity to explain why he gave the answer he submitted, the intelligence of the response is sometimes quite enlightening. And it is precisely at this point that one gets a preliminary insight into the nature of the student's organization of his experiences.

Ascertain the nature of the experience on which the response rests. Further questions asked of the student may reveal this information. A teacher's familiarity with experiences which are normal—and often quite the vogue—for students of a given age group, community, and socio-economic status may also prove beneficial. Once this broader base of cultural participation is grasped, the teacher finds himself nestled confidently inside the student's experience, and the real

teaching potential of the situation emerges.

Test the logic supporting the student's response. This is an important procedure, for it will reveal the cause-effect sequences the student has established. On occasion the pattern of reflection which supports an answer may prove more significant than the response itself. If the student is enabled to detect an error in his logic in the exchange, there is growth in perception on his part.

Estimate the conceptual routes essential for modification of the response. The instructor now attempts to define again the relationship, if any, of the student's answer to one more appropriate. If, by chance, the student has been led to question his own contributions, skilful teaching can point him in a better direction. The alteration of the student's misconception may depend, in part, on the sequential development of new ideas. However, this is not always true, for a new integration and synthesis may occur inside the learner without the need of external aids.

Encourage wider student participation in the discussion. Students can often communicate more effectively with one another than they can with the teacher; they can be mutually helpful to one another. Such participation also adds interest to the classroom activity and creates an enlarged atmosphere of freedom essential to good instruction.

Guide the discussion toward a more adequate and harmonious consensus. The teacher must make certain that the discussion is getting somewhere. Agreement must be sought and those considerations to which they pertain must be brought to light. It is desirable that all contributions made in the discussion be given the respect and status due them, and conclusions drawn should reflect fully and harmoniously all of the intelligence generated.

GOOD RESULTS

Any one of these steps may produce good results. All experienced teachers know of the vast amount of unpredictability which characterizes an atmosphere of free inquiry on numerous occasions. To the dedicated teacher there are few developments which bring more excitement than demonstrable evidence of the growth in perception and understanding on the part of students under his leadership. The classrooms in our schools presided over by animated teachers who obviously enjoy their work hold the key to a safe and secure future for our country and for ideals we cherish.

Good instruction keeps alive the spirit of inquiry, the zest for freedom which provides the best guarantee we know to combat totalitarian doctrines. The leaders of the next century should be well armed for their responsibility if they can be taught the value of the free marketplace of ideas. Much of this potential can be realized through those teachers who are able to see the instructional potential of "wrong" answers. •

1957

One Must Understand the Symptom

Delinquents in the Classroom

BERTRAM M. BECK

In NEA Journal

SCHOOL personnel, like all of us, sometimes tend to seek easy answers to complex problems and may be led to believe that some one panacea can cure the delinquency problem.

No one medicine can cure delinquency, regardless of whether the medicine is more school psychiatrists advocated by the "enlightened" or more corporal punishment by the "back to the woodshed" set. For delinquency is not a disease like diphtheria, for which the course of treatment is obvious once the diagnosis is made.

There are many types of delinquents, and delinquency is more in the nature of a symptom that can mean very different things. One must understand the nature of the symptom before he tries to prescribe for the disease.

Frank, for example, is a "social delinquent." He is a persistent problem to his ninth-grade teacher. Member of a racial minority group, he has grown up in a slum neighborhood of a large American city. Frank is the leader of his gang, a gang well known to the juvenile court and to the police. These youngsters are adventuresome, destructive, restless, aggressive, and rebellious. They have a great deal of loyalty, however, to their own gangs.

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Frank and the boys in his gang have been exiled from the larger community merely because of their race. They and their parents have reacted to this "shut-out" by rejecting those who have rejected them. The teacher, to their eyes a representative of the big community that shuts them out, is an "enemy"; the school, an institution of the enemy.

The school, addressing itself to the problem of the social delinquent from slum areas is well advised to place emphasis on programs designed to enrich the neighborhood. The all-day neighborhood school, for example, can offer cultural and recreational opportunities of a constructive nature that will tend to reduce the street-corner contagion of delinquency.

A history of reading retardation or truancy or both is characteristic of most social delinquents. Schools in high-delinquency areas require an extra supply of teachers qualified to do remedial reading work. They also require access to fully qualified social workers, psychologists, and psychiatrists, so that the underlying

causes of persistent truancy can be understood.

The measures appropriate to the school program to control social delinquency would have little application in the case of Stanley, a sixth-grade student who has resisted all efforts made on his behalf. Children like Stanley come from the homes of both rich and poor. They have usually suffered some severe distressing disturbance in the course of their growth. Most frequently they are children who have been separated from their own mothers during infancy and have had no adequate mother substitute.

Stanley has been in trouble ever since he moved to town to live with Mrs. A, a widow whose good works on behalf of the town have earned her an excellent reputation. Rumor has it that he is the out-of-wedlock child of Mrs. A's niece. Stanley seems to lack completely the moral sense or conscience that is part of the psychological equipment of other youngsters. He has, nevertheless, a ready wit, a lively intelligence, and a certain charm that gets him out of scrapes which would easily land those not so endowed in the state training school. Many are the efforts that have been made with the idea of helping Stanley to make a "better adjustment."

Stanley probably cannot be reached by his teachers, since he is an "asocial delinquent." Like the social delinquent, these asocial children are selfcentered, and their behavior has a primitive, brutal quality to it. Unlike the social delinquent, they can neither give nor receive affection. They know no loyalties, even apprehension does not stimulate in them a sense of guilt or anxiety about their conduct.

When dealing with these children, teachers must give up cliches about keeping children out of court or freeing them from the stigma of a court record, for a delaying action with this type of delinquent is dangerous and socially improvident. Attempting to treat the child permissively makes the situation worse rather than better. He should be brought within the scope of the official agencies just as soon as the first real delinquency occurs.

Obviously the school's role cannot be enlarged to include the basic personality reconstruction required for the treatment of the asocial delinquent. In most instances, these youngsters are too damaged to remain in the school system. Despite the obvious, however, schools that operate on a benign platform of verbalization about "needs of children" without a solid diagnostic base do indeed put these youngsters through a mill of paper work, special classes, and well-intentioned but inept "counseling" which cannot benefit the child but can only impair the morale of teachers and pupils alike.

Still another type of delinquent behavior with which teachers are confronted is that evidenced by Michael, a senior-high-school student who, until the time he was identified as the boy responsible for setting a series of fires in the com-

munity, had a reputation of being a "nice, quiet boy." When Michael was formally charged with arson, his father appeared dazed by shock; his mother stoutly protested the proceeding, saying, "It was a boyish prank."

"Neurotic delinquents" like Michael often come from the middle or upper classes. Their parents are usually beset by their own personal problems, and there is a lack of warmth in family relationships. The behavior of the child has a compulsive quality to it. It is not "healthy" delinquency. Some aggression is open and manifest in the delinquent act, but a great deal of the aggression is turned inward so that the child suffers guilt and anxiety.

While teachers probably cannot "cure" a neurosis, they can offer a neurotic child a kind of relationship and certain opportunities for personal development that will enhance the child's chances of functioning in an acceptable fashion despite the neurosis. When the teacher has done his best and deviate behavior persists, then help outside the classroom is needed. Such help may be sought from fully qualified therapeutic personnel in the school system or from appropriate community agencies. Without these resources, little can be done.

In addition to the categories of delinquent children already mentioned, reference should be made to a small number of "organic delinquents"—children whose behavior is due to actual brain damage. The school can neither prevent nor treat this type of delinquency. Knowledge of its existence, however, underlies the importance of utilizing the school-health program not only in respect to general health maintenance of school population, but for special health appraisal of children with problems.

A somewhat dissimilar category is that of "accidental" delinquents—children behaving in a fashion normal to their development, but contrary to our all-inclusive state statutes defining delinquency. Such youngsters may actually receive a push toward delinquency if they start thinking of themselves as delinquents.

Mention should be made here of what is being called "suburban social delinquency." So-called "better" communities have been constructed virtually overnight on yesterday's corn fields, without community services or tradition. Because each family comes to such a new development separately, removed from contacts with kin or the sense of tradition that characterizes older communities, the lack of the spirit of togetherness may lead to delinquency.

With this type of suburban social delinquency, schools cannot cope unless they are ready to act as centers of community mobilization. The sum total of what we know about delinquency today makes it plain that here is a problem which cannot be solved short of a major effort to integrate the community around a positive concern of its members each for the other. •

Happy in the Job?

Attitudes Toward Work— An Educational and Guidance Problem

JESSIE GREENBAUM and HARRY C. HENDRICKSON

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

THROUGH their experience with workers at all levels and in all types of occupations, business and industry have become aware of the importance of the attitude of their employes toward their work and the effect of these attitudes on performance and productivity. If attitudes have been found to be of such major importance for success in the vocational life of individuals, it is clearly one of the duties of the educational system to develop in our young people proper attitudes toward work. What then, is the role of the school, and particularly that of the guidance department, in giving young people the necessary training and experiences for real preparation in the work world?

One of the major contributions of the school to proper attitudes toward work can be made in the general routine to which the pupils are held and the standards that are expected of them. Such matters as insistence on good attendance and punctuality as well as courtesy toward teachers and other students are excellent training for the role of a successful worker in the vocational world. It is generally known that very few employes are discharged for inability to perform their work in comparison with the number who are discharged for habitual absence, tardiness, and inability to work harmoniously with others.

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If the school instills good habits in these areas so that students feel the responsibility for punctuality, attendance, and group harmony in their school life, the feelings and attitudes will be carried over into the job, and the students will be much more likely to become successful workers. Pride in one's school and loyalty to its activities and personnel are the embryonic beginnings of pride in one's future vocational group and loyalty to the members and undertakings thereof.

In addition, there are many specific things which the school can do to help students develop proper attitudes toward work. One of the first of these is to arouse in students an awareness of the dignity of work and the value and interrelationship of all useful occupations.

A particular item to be clarified will be the false notions which many youth have of the actual and prestige values of white-collar jobs in comparison with semiskilled or laboring jobs. Teaching students to respect and appreciate skill at whatever level and in whatever activities it may be evidenced is another general attitude which the school should consider if it is to graduate students with proper attitudes toward work.

When students come to realize that the skill of telephone linesmen in stringing wires and making their myriad connections is just as great a contribution to the welfare of our society as is the operating skill of the highly trained surgeon, then they are beginning to see vocations and professions in their true relationships and are more likely to develop selfsatisfaction in their future vocational choices.

As students develop selfsatisfaction through successful accomplishment of school tasks, they are laying the groundwork for this same sense of accomplishment that may be a lasting, lifetime experience in carefully chosen vocations which give them the opportunity to exercise their individual creative powers to the utmost and reap the rewards of useful work well done. Thus it behooves the school to see that students experience selfsatisfaction with a minimum of frustration by catering to individual differences and needs so that each one is given meaningful tasks which interest and challenge him, yet are not beyond his ability to perform successfully. Continual failure in his school tasks may turn any pupil into an embittered personality who, not knowing the satisfactions of success, will be likely to turn the same jaundiced eye toward the tasks of his first job.

In the development of satisfactory attitudes towards work, occupational information is one of the most effective tools of the counselor. Students who have received accurate information are less likely to approach their job with unrealistic attitudes. An example of this might be found in the glamour which students sometimes attach to certain jobs such as stenography. Often girls dream of the exciting man for whom they will work, visualize themselves in the role of confidante and adviser, and expect to perform highly significant services. When they find themselves doing only routine typing for older married men or women executives and answering monotonous questions over the telephone, they are often greatly dissatisfied and develop attitudes or distaste for the work. Proper occupational information on the exact duties performed by a stenographer gained by reading appropriate occupational literature, visits to offices, and talks with experienced stenographers would help to dispel the false glamour of the job and save the girl the frustration and development of unpleasant and perhaps uncooperative attitudes.

While there are many obvious techniques that skilled guidance and counseling can employ to assist the

prospective worker in his preparation for his first job, there are several worthy of emphasis here. Good counseling is badly needed with reference to employer-employe relationships. Young people need to be reminded of facts which sometimes seem only too obvious to their elders —that the employer expects acceptable work, that he expects compliance with his wishes and the rules of the business, that extra work is necessary in emergencies, that loyalty will be shown to the organization, and that confidential information will be handled discreetly.

In addition, there is the important matter of colleague relationships and the attitudes displayed in this area. Students must be made aware that it is their duty to work harmoniously with the group in which they find themselves. They must be led to realize that in every group of workers there will be those whom they may not admire and those who may be troublemakers. Students need to be given techniques for courteous handling of unpleasant situations and to be made aware of the importance of fitting into the group. Talks by employers who emphasize this aspect of attitudes toward work may do much to prepare the student while he is still in school.

Development of effective attitudes towards work has often resulted from school-work programs into which the students may have been guided by the counselor. The values of such experiences from the viewpoint of attitude development probably lie in the supervision, counseling, and follow-up which the students receive prior to beginning their jobs and while they are engaged in them. The coordinator or counselor who supervises the work experience will have the dual advantage of observing the student at work and of obtaining the rating and reaction of the employer. This gives him an opportunity to do a very effective job of counseling the student on poor attitudes that the employer may have reported or which the counselor may have observed himself. And, when the student has left school and is ready for a full-time job, once more there is an opportunity for further guidance in attitude development and through regular follow-up to see how well the new worker is adjusting after six months and again at the end of a year on the job.

Why is it that we emphasize that attitude in relation to one's job is such an important matter? Because, as has been well said, "Orientation to everyday life situations is vitally affected by the degree of satisfaction derived from one's job and the general attitude toward the work experience." Achieving happiness and contentment in our way of living is a matter of concern for every individual, and if in our philosophic approach to our particular job we can see it "as it affects what one does, whom one knows, and often, how one thinks," we can make our jobs major reinforcements for a happier way of life. •

1957

Children Are Naturally Curious

Encouraging Early Research

MILLICENT E. SELSAM

In The Packet

SCIENCE is a product of an environment in which people are alert, observant, have an interest in the natural world, and have a knowledge of the scientific method. The question is how to achieve such an environment.

One essential requirement is to start early, with the alert, inquiring youngster who wants to know more about the world in which he lives. It takes a lot of dampening to discourage the natural curiosity of a child. Our job, I think, is to take this natural curiosity and nourish it until we have produced the kind of citizen who is a proper representative of the scientific age in which we live.

The child must learn to respect the vast body of knowledge accumulated as the result of observation and experiment of others. He can find many, many answers to questions in the books he learns to know and consult. At the same time he must understand that this body of knowledge is a product of observation and experimentation—processes that are still going on, and in which he can participate. He must feel that even though young, he too can contribute to this body of knowledge. There are plenty of areas in science where a great deal of technical knowledge is not required.

Millicent E. Selsam is the author of many nature books for young children. *Reported from* The Packet, *a service bulletin published for elementary teachers by D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Massachusetts. XI (Fall, 1956), 21–27.*

Knowledge gained from observation alone is not enough. For young people, observation of natural facts should lead to an interest in discovering the causes of the processes and activities they observe.

Observation can lead to a host of stimulating questions that can be answered by simple experiments. Any young person following through on an observation can learn the values that only experimentation can give —the kind of thought that goes into the formulation of a problem; the understanding of the need for a control; the necessity for careful observation, and the drawing of proper conclusions from what is observed in the experiment.

In our science classes, we still have too much emphasis on the finished product of investigation rather than on the method of investigation. I remember going through many science courses in which we did laboratory experiments. If the experiments didn't work, I felt I had wasted my time.

Sometimes I got the expected results from somebody else, or sometimes I looked them up in a book, but I was not stimulated to find out why the experiment did not work, to look constantly for cause and effect relationships, to regard the method of finding out the answer just as important as the answer itself.

NO TRICKS

There is hardly a child who cannot be encouraged to do research at a very early age, at a very simple level, but with a basic method that he or she can use forever after. Let's please avoid the trick or magic presentation of science.

I heard of a little girl who was to demonstrate how air could hold water up—with the usual glass, water, and piece of cardboard. She was to do it in the assembly. She did, but this time she was nervous, and didn't cover the bottom of the glass as completely as she should have. You know the results. The water spilled all over her—to the vast amusement of the hundreds of children gathered there.

This little girl sat down and cried. If she had been properly trained she would have given that whole assembly a wonderful lesson. Suppose she had laughed and said, "See what happens when a little bit of air gets in?" Better still, she could have said, "Let me try it again and show you that it can work!"

The experiment or demonstration that doesn't work can sometimes be impressive and more instructive than the one that does. It was Francis Bacon who taught us the value of the negative instance. He said, "It is the peculiar and perpetual error of the human intellect to be more moved and excited by affirmatives than by negatives, whereas it ought properly to hold itself indifferently disposed towards both alike. Indeed, in the establishment of any true axiom, the negative instance is the more forcible."

When children are taught to be responsive to their environment, they can work out their own ideas, observe for themselves, experiment to find out why. When an experiment doesn't work, they can be conditioned to find out why it didn't, to exploring further, discovering more, to have an ever developing, expanding sense of inquiry. When children are taught, through their own activity, these elements of scientific method, they will have a healthy skepticism with regard to prevailing superstitious and exaggerated advertising. They will know that there is a world of difference between a coincidence and a controlled experiment. When somebody tells them he has a green thumb, the children will have their doubts, and proceed to question the other person about exactly what methods he uses.

By encouraging a constant use of the methods of science in our young citizens, we will have an adult citizenry free of ignorance, prejudice, superstition, and fear, and accustomed to solving problems in a scientific way. •

1957

Pressure Is Detrimental

Reflections on the Teaching of Handwriting

LUELLA COLE

In The Elementary School Journal

NO subject in the curriculum is as neglected or as poorly taught—above the first three grades—as handwriting, and in no other subject are the results of instruction less impressive. I believe that much of the difficulty results from fundamental misconceptions about the nature of handwriting, which differs from reading and arithmetic because it consists of muscular skills, not of ideas.

Handwriting is allied to athletic skills. One needs the same physical basis for producing a good script that one needs for hitting a ball, or rolling a hoop, or jumping a rope, namely, good muscular control, relaxed nerves, good eyesight, and excellent coordination between hand and eye. These nonintellectual traits develop largely as a result of mere age and growth, although training can accelerate the process. The main thing to grasp is that handwriting is purely a muscular tool, without content or end in itself and without any fixed relation to intellectual development.

Teachers of the first two grades usually start out well in their teaching of handwriting (provided they do not allow printing to continue), because, as does a good tennis coach, they base their teaching on imitation of a good model. They show the children in detail just how to make each part of each letter, and they allow plenty of time. In these grades, handwriting is a subject, not a tool; that is, children do not use their skill in the pursuance of other subjects. Most pupils develop a good script by the end of the second year of school. They write slowly and sometimes make their letters quite large, but they form them correctly. In some schools this same type of treatment continues into Grade III.

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But in Grades IV, V, and VI several developments take place. The pupils are asked to make their writing smaller; they are asked to use their script as a tool; they are hurried; and in many schools they no longer receive specific training in handwriting. By the end of Grade VI the average script is not nearly so good as that shown by the same children in Grade II or III. In the junior- and the senior-high school, there is an occasional flurry of interest in handwriting, but such instruction as is given is sporadic and of short duration. Indeed, above the

elementary-school level, handwriting is nobody's specific business. If any training is given, it is usually furnished by the teacher of English, not because she considers such instruction her responsibility, but simply because she gets tired of decoding the illegible scripts in which the students' themes are written.

Perhaps the worst feature of any instruction given in handwriting above the first two years of elementary school is the constant pressure for speed and for use. Whereas the tennis coach condemns speed and does not allow his student to use a stroke in playing games before he can hit the ball perfectly, fifth- and sixth-grade teachers constantly ask for the use of script, often require more writing than pupils can produce in the time allowed, and may even give them "speed drills."

PRESSURE MOUNTS

Teachers are rarely willing to wait for nature—or, perhaps it is fairer to say, modern life is not willing to wait. The teachers are themselves under pressure, and they tend to pass on to the children the need to hurry. In subjects other than handwriting, such pressure sometimes results in a successful stimulation of mental processes, but it is fatal to a muscular skill like handwriting.

To use handwriting as a tool before it is ready for such use is no more sensible than to send a pupil into a tennis tournament just as soon as he can hit a stroke correctly. He is not ready until he has hit several thousand strokes—slowly, carefully, accurately, correctly, without pressure, but with constant self-diagnosis.

The fourth-grade child is just about ready to start this intensive practice; he knows the forms of the letters and he can produce them if given enough time, but he has thus far merely imitated his models. He has not yet begun to recognize, diagnose, and correct his errors. Nor has he enough practice to establish his correct muscular reactions against forgetting or deterioration. Unfortunately he is asked to use his barely formed skills at once, and he promptly develops a host of bad habits, which will prevent him from developing a good script, even after he is old enough to produce one.

Good handwriting consists of a series of muscular skills that develop as the combined result of mere age, of absence from pressure, and of elimination by diagnostic teaching of such bad habits as may arise. Because handwriting is, in a small way, an athletic skill, the teaching should be modeled on the training methods already known to be successful in other types of muscular learning. Under such teaching, the work of the first two grades would not be greatly changed, and probably the same imitative type of teaching, with a bit more attention to details of letter formation, might well be continued through Grade III.

The next three years, however, should be quite different. Pupils should receive regular, short, well-motivated drills, constantly accom-

panied by diagnostic explanations and completely divorced from any pressure for speed. In these grades the pupils should get enough specific practice to "set" the movements underlying the good, over-large, childish script with which they entered Grade IV, and they should develop the habit of diagnosis. They should not, however, use their handwriting often as a tool in other subjects—and when it is so used, they should be given plenty of time. That is, to put the matter into practical terms, a teacher might ask pupils to write something once a day in connection with the work of some other subject, giving them adequate time. As matters now stand, many pupils in the intermediate grades write more or less for every subject every day, under conditions that call for more speed than they can easily produce.

WHEN TO START

The steady use of handwriting should be postponed to at least Grade VI, and Grade VII would be better. Moreover, it should be accompanied by enough instruction and supervision to provide the final transfer of skills from practice to use and to check any deterioration that appears in the process. By the time of their entrance to high school, most pupils thus taught would write well enough for practical purposes and would be able to use their skills in ordinary situations, although a few might still need remedial training.

At the high-school level the most helpful procedure is to reward a good and penalize a poor script. If a legibly written paper and a scrawl both receive the same mark, there is little impetus for doing more than scrawl. A marked improvement occurs quickly if a teacher writes in the margin of a returned paper: "Content of paper B, raised to B+ because of excellent script," or "Content of paper B, reduced to C+ because script is almost illegible."

If a teacher is not willing to include the script as one basis for marking, he or she can compromise by giving two marks (one for content and one for script), but the motivation is greatly reduced. Thus, if young Pete Smith who wants an A in chemistry gets back a few papers on which the content was A but the mark was only A− or B+ because of his handwriting, he will very soon remedy his defect. But if he gets two marks (A for content and D for writing), he is likely to do nothing whatever, because he already knows his script is poor and does not care that it is. If he cared, he would have done something about it sooner. Only by using as a lever his desire for an A in chemistry can the teacher bring adequate pressure to bear on him to effect a remediation of the script.

Beyond Grade VI the main problems are those of transfer and of motivation. Under a system of teaching based on the known principles of muscular learning, the main changes would appear in the work of Grades IV through VI. •

What Do We Mean—Speech Education?

KARL F. ROBINSON

In Education

SPEECH education rests on a universal need—the need for one man to exchange his ideas and feelings, by visible and audible means, with other men so that they may live successfully with one another. That is a need that exists in all occupations, in all kinds of society and government, at all ages from childhood through adult years.

In our country, a democracy, participation in government, business, and community affairs demands that every individual have at least some proficiency in speech. Human relations break down in all fields because of failure or inadequate knowledge and training in the processes of oral communication (speech). Recent surveys among business and industrial executives and personnel directors show that 75 percent of this group indicate speaking ability as an essential quality for success at the office worker, junior executive, and top leadership levels. A very large number of business concerns which conduct employe training programs consider speech education so important that they employ trained instructors to provide it for their personnel. And every night throughout the school year, thousands of adults attend night-school classes in university centers to get the speech training they do not have. In one week Northwestern University alone offers 30 sections to service the needs of Chicago men and women in voice and diction and speech fundamentals, essentials of public speaking, discussion, and conference leadership.

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Why do these people pay their tuition, spend their evenings, and devote their time to gain these essential skills? This is the answer: Because the public schools have failed to provide the means and sufficient opportunities for persons to procure such education during their regular elementary- and secondary-school training. One educator remarked recently: "Our schools have taught us facts and information, but have not taught us how to make them function by teaching us how to communicate them effectively (through speech)." If we are to resolve the problems existing today in human relations, we must give more, careful, and direct attention to speech education.

Speech education is needed for the improvement of personal speech

habits. Speech correction and hearing rehabilitation are, of course, a part of any program of speech education, but in this case we speak of the 90 percent of our population which has what might be called "normal" speech. For these persons the important service of speech education is to provide improvement so that they can be more effective in their jobs and in their relations with other people.

One of the common remarks made by laymen and students is "I feel uneasy or afraid when I talk to an audience." This attitude is typical. It often keeps children from "belonging." It prevents adults from sharing good ideas with a PTA or a conference group. It keeps many from taking part in community affairs and government. Speech education provides training and experience which will enable persons to become better adjusted and more confident in meeting the speech situations of everyday life.

Speech education should provide a mastery of *basic* speech skills. Teachers' colleges have for many years stressed reading, spelling, and writing as the principal areas for direct teaching in the language-arts area. There is no question of the importance of these skills. However, they have ignored or slid *indirectly* past any organized instruction in speaking, discussing, creative drama, interpretation of literature, and listening, which are very important parts of the area.

In both elementary and secondary schools, attention needs to be given to the preparation and presentation of talks, the discussion of problems (with attention to analysis, critical thinking, good preparation for participation and leadership), and reading aloud. A place must be given to these skills which permits them to be taught in a direct, organized fashion, and not "just incidentally."

As we have observed earlier, college students and adults realize their inadequacies, and at a very late date in their educational lives try to "fill in the gaps." It is unfortunate that the elementary and secondary schools, as well as some colleges and universities, have not seen their responsibilities and discharged them more completely.

WE NEED LEADERS

In our democracy we are obligated to produce leaders in government, business, industry, education, and the other professions. Speech education, by the very statement of existing leaders, is an invaluable and essential part of leadership training. Failure to serve those who have superior ability and talent to become leaders is one of the great sins of American education. All of the aspects of speech education offer an answer to a great part of the solution to this problem. We need articulate, creative, sensitive, resourceful, and tactful persons in posts of authority. The tools of effective speech used to impart information, search out truth, and present it convincingly, to discuss and negotiate in problem situations, to know and to share the best of our

culture through interpreting literature, to appreciate drama, and to use with intelligence and integrity the mass media of radio and television are goals and services of speech education.

Since speech education serves critical needs of all segments of our population, it is relevant to set forth conditions which are favorable to its development.

First, the needs, as have been noted here, must be recognized.

Second, the contributions it makes to our educational pattern should be known and appreciated (developing adequate personal speech habits; building suitable attitudes towards speech situations; mastery of the basic speech skills; training in more specialized activities).

Third, opportunities should be provided for teaching it in the regular curriculum patterns of the elementary school, high school, and college. It is not enough to treat this area incidentally, as an extra-class experience only, or to bury it by unfavorable integration with English instruction (in the high school) where it is lost in the eagerness of the teacher to emphasize writing skills and mechanics. Neither should it be "passed over lightly" as a stepchild in the family of writing, spelling, and reading in the elementary school.

Fourth, work in speech education should be well-organized and broad enough to serve the needs of all levels of the school population—handicapped, "normal," and talented.

Fifth, continuity should be provided for speech education so that there is opportunity for repetition of experience, growth, and maturation in the habits and skills taught.

Sixth, flexibility should be present to allow meeting individual student needs.

Seventh, intelligent planning should permit the work to evolve in a manner consistent with the particular school and community conditions.

Eighth and last, adequate time, faculty, and budget are necessary so that the investment will pay the handsome dividends it is capable of paying to our people, to our government, and to our society. •

• AFTER end-of-term prizes were distributed in the fourth grade, Rusty's Mother asked him if he got an award. "No," he replied, "but I got a horrible mention."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

• A FOUR-YEAR-OLD girl was heard singing "God Bless America" this way: "Stand beside her, and guide her, through the night with the light from a bulb."—From *Texas Outlook.*

• BOBBY, called on to recite the nursery rhyme, "Little Miss Muffet," responded, "Little Miss Muffet sat on a tuffet eating her curtains away."—From *The Instructor.*

If They Can Spin a Yarn . . .

They All Can Learn to Write

CARL G. WONNBERGER

In The English Journal

I HAVE a kind of impatience with those who stress the formal differences in varieties of writing. I especially dislike the term "creative writing." I do not understand whether "creative writing" is supposed to "create" something or to be "created"—and in what special sense. The mixture may vary but the ingredients are always the same whether one is writing a report, advertising copy, a letter, a news article, poetry, drama, fiction, or a familiar essay. The common ingredients are imagination, analysis, selection, synthesis, organization, and interpretation, and one may find excellent composites of these elements in every kind of writing.

Writing, like every other art, is highly personal. It includes certain disciplines—order, proportion, precision, and clarity—and these disciplines are rigorous for all who would learn to write. Some say writing cannot be taught, that each writer must find his own way, and in a sense this is true. There is one common philosophy, however, all must accept: to try, to fail, to revise, to try again, to fail by a little less perhaps, to revise again. So onward to success which will come when the writer (not the teacher) is completely satisfied.

Now the teacher is not quite obsolete; however, she is merely a convenience; she saves time. If wise, she can instruct and not make a nuisance of herself or take the student's mind off what he has to say; if foolish, she can substitute false goals and get the student so diverted by technical trivia that he forgets what he wants to say. I think of a really good teacher as one who succeeds in creating a climate in which writing well becomes as respectable as playing football well. If a teacher can do that she need do little else.

I happen to teach in a boys' school in a highly industrialized neighborhood. My students are weaned on shop talk and the lore of the marketplace. But I try to counteract this somewhat. Some years ago an aggressive young fellow developed a deep scorn for E. E. Cummings. To tease him, his classmates brought in one morning a whole sheaf of "poems" written in the Cummings style. It was fun. Next morning one of our most respected students, Head Prefect and captain of two teams, dropped an-

Carl G. Wonnberger, a teacher in Cranbrook School at Bloomfield Hills, Michigan, is Secretary-Treasurer of the Michigan Council of Teachers of English. Reported from The English Journal, *XLV (November, 1956), 455–61.*

other kind of poem on my desk. I read it aloud and the class liked it; and then came a perfect flood of poems—poor ones at first, then better ones, and then some that won five state and several national awards. I had really done nothing at all. I hadn't even suggested that anyone write poetry and I certainly gave no marks or credits. I had merely kept the kind of class in which it was possible for a football captain to write poetry without being laughed at.

I do not and would not teach a course in "creative writing"; as a matter of fact mine is just an English course, nothing more. We write drama, poetry, all kinds of dramatic scripts, essays, reports, articles, and just about everything. We write every week over the weekend, and it is no secret that we expect to have to revise everything at least once. We plan our reading to stimulate our thinking, but we do not "cover ground"; by that I do not mean that we undervalue the traditional writers—far from it, but we do try to avoid material which has been worn bare by the popular anthology. We study semantics, philosophy, and a good many other things. We have no syllabus, and we rarely repeat what we do from year to year. We have two aims: to have boys learn to read so well they will enjoy reading, and to have boys learn to write so well they will enjoy writing.

In a paper of this kind one is expected, I suppose, to set down some "how to do it" ideas. That isn't easy. I have, of course, a personal approach. It doesn't make much difference, however, what kind of approach one makes; the chief requirement is enthusiasm, a wide knowledge of writing, and some common sense.

I ask my students to keep notebooks and jot down all manner of things: their thoughts; curious things they see, hear, or read; ideas for compositions. Whenever I make an assignment I try to do it myself and to write about twice as much as I expect of my class. If writing is as much fun as I say it is, I certainly should be willing to write as often as my classes, and it is quite important that my classes know that I really can write. I say this because I suspect that there are teachers who dislike writing and who have never written much more than a personal letter since their college days. It is obvious that such persons cannot teach composition.

When we start I have my students analyze whatever material they have gathered—and I believe gathering ideas and materials is just as important in writing poetry as it is in writing an article. If this material involves reports of other people's opinions, I emphasize the fact that people's opinions and ideas are always subject to prejudice and error. If what the student is doing is within his grasp, he should be able to determine for himself what is good, what bad, what fairly spoken, what prejudiced, and, of course, what pertinent. My students cannot escape from their own prejudiced environ-

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ment, of course, but it is important from the start that they learn to assume responsibility for their judgments—it is the only way toward growth.

Next comes synthesis. This involves finding a shape for the amorphous material they now have. In critical or expository reports it is important to avoid initial judgment. Once the student has said, "John is a good boy," or "This was a beautiful service," there is little left to capture the interest of his reader. A safe start for all formal essays is the definition of terms: "I think government control is bad," says our young Republican. "All government control? Police, fire, sanitary, smoke, currency, food, drug controls?" "Well, no—I mean control over business." "If you own a home and a fertilizer plant comes along and builds next door—" "Well, naturally! What I mean is restrictive controls." So we are off on a semantic holiday. I am not interested here in arguing government control, but in showing a technique.

Definition is important. So is interpretation. To be highly effective, interpretation must be subtle, and for this reason I prefer training through something other than the formal essay. We can make characters interpret for us, and we can clarify our ideas through human interest stories; and we can "think out loud" in the familiar essay; or we can use reference, analogy, or word shading in poetry.

Suppose, however, we decide to dwell entirely on pure exposition; the need for interpretation is still with us, and unless we use certain devices our exposition will be unspeakably dull. Christ knew this, and in his preaching of what was for his day a highly controversial and somewhat abstruse social and ethical doctrine, he made liberal use of the human interest story, the story parable. It is because such auxiliary devices which make composition come alive can be mastered more readily in the writing of nonexpository material that I urge wide diversity in writing experience for all young students. They will come to their reports in due time, but when they do, their reports may have in them something of the breath of life.

Now all this is very sketchy, and admittedly there is much more to teaching composition than one article can hold. Admittedly, too, the bulk of my personal experience has been with good students. However, this past year I inherited a "slow" class—students who came to me defeated and deflated. Since I know next to nothing about remedial work and have little sympathy with it, I had nothing to use except my regular line of procedure. I was, however, determined that there would be no workbooks, no diagramming, and no "grammar." At first, results seemed disquieting, for I was used to quicker progress, but shortly after midyear this "slow" class of ninth graders amazed me by winning 21 state writing prizes including five first places in a contest which involved many older students. My em-

barrassment was complete when I realized that several of the winners were even then failing my course.

Talent is where you find it, and it seems to be less a matter of original power than a matter of dedication. Almost anyone can learn to write well if writing comes to be the accepted thing in his social group.

My major worry is the teacher's time. It takes roughly 30 minutes to read, comment on, and supervise the rewriting of one paper. It is absolutely necessary to have one paper a week. When you multiply two hundred or even 150 times 30, the result is staggering, especially since we know that administrators set a teacher's schedule by the class hours she teaches and completely disregard what must be done outside —in this case enough marking to discourage anyone but a zealot.

Aside from the problem of the excessive teacher-pupil load, the "do it fast" mania is the greatest handicap to writing. The objective test in all its ramifications is an abomination, not only because it inhibits free and full expression in many areas of schooling, but because it reduces everything to a yes-no, true-false, multiple-choice technique and practically eliminates true thinking. This subject is too complex for discussion here, but certainly English teachers above all others should band together to resist the objective test and demand emancipation from the IBM monster.

A third handicap to composition is the textbook which starts with the word, and then goes on to the sentence and the paragraph, with the notion that once we raise a superstructure of technique we can hang any ideas on it. This is all wrong. Normally we think a thought, then divide it into its natural parts, then implemment it as we must to make it clear to others. Any other arrangement violates the natural creative process and substitutes a highly artificial procedure for a natural one. It is to be feared that many teachers and students get lost in the machinery of composition.

Such busy work as diagramming sentences and identifying parts of speech is far removed from the actual process of writing. This English of ours is a mighty and an elastic tool, and we have an obligation to show our students how great and sensitive it is and how well it will serve a variety of human needs. I doubt whether any textbook can compress into its pages all we need to know when we teach writing in an English course.

There are magnificent teachers of English in the American schools. Despite all their handicaps they are obviously teaching students to write. It is the function of all of us to spread the word that even under the present difficult circumstances success is not impossible. It is even more essential that we all join forces to see to it that our classrooms become laboratories in which the climate is such that all kinds of writing can be done as naturally as experiments can be performed in science classes or as football can be learned in the stadium. •

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A Snail-Like Pace

Evaluation in Fundamental Education

G. E. R. BURROUGHS

In Fundamental and Adult Education

WHEN, in the flush of postwar enthusiasm, the Unesco Fundamental Education program was conceived, little was thought or written of evaluation. At that stage the emphasis was, rightly, on getting on with the job of helping the underprivileged and underdeveloped communities of the world. Early in the 1950's a certain reaction set in. On the one hand, member states for various reasons, mainly economic, began to inquire whether the monies they were contributing were being wisely spent; on the other hand, certain educationists and others began to query whether the present organization of fundamental education was meeting the needs which had initially been seen and whether its emphasis was in the right direction.

This reaction, which is natural, is appropriate to many of the operations which the United Nations agencies undertake. It is natural and appropriate to evaluate the work of a salt mine adviser in terms of the change of output of salt, or of a rice production team in terms of the yield of rice. Evaluation may also be appropriate to certain aspects of fundamental education. But to fundamental education as a whole, and in its significant effects on the lives of individuals, it is doubtful whether it is appropriate. It certainly seems to be inappropriate at its present stage of development.

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Education is not primarily concerned with material matters but with mental and moral development and with values and attitudes. It is concerned to develop for each individual a viewpoint, both critical and appreciative, which will allow him to live at peace with himself, sympathetically with his community, and without fear in his natural environment. A feature of education is its slow rate of growth. It is slow in acceptance, it is slow in its effect on individuals, and it is slow in the manner in which these effects are disseminated among the whole community. Fundamental education needs to be given much more time than it has yet had before it can be expected to have much effect. Under the pressure of evaluation the wrong things may become the important things. On these grounds I repeat my opinion

that evaluation in fundamental education ought not yet to be pressed too firmly.

Evaluation, in its proper sense, means measuring. In this sense evaluation has been successfully applied in many limited fields in the social sciences, biological sciences, economics and so on, and it has been applied also to certain very limited problems in education. It has not, to my knowledge, been applied to estimate the contribution made to community development by any one school nor even by a whole educational system even in the more technically developed countries. There would seem to be no valid reason why it should be applied to centers of such limited influence as fundamental education projects. For, admire them in conception and achievement as one may, they are, as yet, of limited influence. They are few in number, work in limited areas even in the country of their location, work on budgets which are not only limited but which are likely to vary erratically from year to year, are set in geographical conditions which are often as trying to the national staffs who are more used to them as to the international staffs who are not, and who have only limited experience of the working methods to adopt. With such limits and difficulties their influence may possibly begin to emerge in a generation, and it is in such terms that evaluation should be conceived.

In the meantime it is not to be supposed that fundamental education projects should be allowed to develop in isolation and without a measure of external advice and control. With the limitations and provisos implicit in the earlier argument we may envisage the growth of a system which would allow a periodical assessment.

THE FIRST STEP

Necessary, as phase one, to such an assessment is the observation of phenomena and collection of data in an objective manner, on which may later be developed a system of cumulative record cards. I use this term to denote a record system in which is regularly noted, under various headings, the visits made, action taken, effects observed, the wells dug, books borrowed, tomatoes planted, and so on. These records one would expect to be maintained on a day-to-day basis; they correspond to the medical man's records, the laboratory notebook, and the ship's log. Many projects do, of course, already maintain some such records. What is needed immediately is a bringing together of experience from all the fundamental education projects and the establishment of a system which is as uniform as circumstances will permit and which can be put into operation without delay.

A second phase in evaluation might be the establishment of *ad hoc* assessing teams. I envisage a team, of fairly constant composition, made up of perhaps four or five people drawn from the higher ranks of Unesco and, perhaps one

external institution, visiting each of the projects in turn, staying long enough to get the feel of the place. Their first function would be to inspire and invigorate, their second to advise, and their third to assess.

As a third phase one would advocate the creation of a small research unit, free of other responsibilities, whose purpose would be to make a careful study of the principal indicators of progress in fundamental education and into the methods of estimating them. Margaret Mead, in "The Contribution of Social Anthropologists to Educational Problems in Underdeveloped Territories," speaks of the dilemma of the present-day social anthropologist who cannot carry out essential fundamental research on which to base a program of cultural change because of the insistent and urgent demand for action. In the field of education the change is, perhaps fortunately, rather slow and such a research team as proposed might consequently be able to carry out work of basic importance. This could help to solve the "action-before-thought" dilemma and also provide provisional results on which an assessment/advisory team could check its own work.

What the parameters of progress would be on which, ultimately, to base an assessment of effectiveness in this field is a matter largely for speculation at this state. Some would doubtless be of an economic and material nature. Other indicators would probably be in the field of literacy and knowledge though by now the dangers of accepting such evidence alone is well-known. The significant ones would almost certainly be associated with attitudes, judgments, and values. It is in this penumbra that the evaluator must grope. •

• AN educated man is one who has finally discovered that there are some questions to which nobody has the answers.—From *Texas Outlook.*

• ONE way to restore humility is to read the help-wanted ads. You'd be surprised how many positions there are which you are too ignorant, too unattractive, or too old to fill.—From *Kiwanis Magazine.*

• IT takes a baby approximately two years to learn to talk and between 60 and 70 to learn to keep his mouth shut.—From *San Francisco Classroom Teachers' Journal.*

• THE theme of modern family living is "togetherness." This means that Pop washes the dishes before he starts building the porch furniture so that Mother can get her PTA telephoning done in time to drop Junior at Scout meeting on her way to the textile-painting class.—From *Minnesota Journal of Education.*

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

No Backtrack Yet.—A new skirmish in the war between integrationists and segregationists has flared in the Nation's Capital. A southern cry, "Back to segregation!" startled local educators for a moment. But, integration, begun more than a year ago as a model for the rest of the country, is still in effect in the city's public schools.

The skirmish started when Rep. James C. Davis (D., Ga.) released a report purporting to summarize the findings of a hearing he held several months ago on the effect of integration on scholastic achievement in the public schools of the District of Columbia. Three other southern Representatives associated themselves with Mr. Davis and his startling conclusion: Negro and white students must be separated again in the public schools. Two Republican committee members, DeWitt Hyde (Md.) and A. L. Miller (Nebr.), issued minority reports, arguing that "to reestablish segregation would require a Constitutional amendment."

Rep. Davis and his three colleagues charged that integration in the District of Columbia schools brought "appalling educational, disciplinary, and sex problems." To this a Washington citizens group replied: "The worst problems were caused by the old problems of segregation and are being solved by integration."

Local educators believe that Mr. Davis and his southern colleagues are actually disturbed by the success of the District's integration and fear it might serve as a model for other school systems. The report, they feel, is addressed not so much to the District of Columbia board of education as it is to "the white citizens councils in Georgia."

Derthick's Future Tasks.—One of the busiest desks in official Washington belongs to U. S. Education Commissioner Lawrence G. Derthick. On the job only since December 20, a maze of papers has already passed across it.

One of the biggest tasks facing the new Commissioner will be completion of the reorganization of the U. S. Office of Education begun under his predecessor, Dr. Samuel Brownell. Whether he will follow the Brownell plan to regroup USOE's divisions and personnel under the categories of Research, Service, and Grants or whether he will decide to "reorganize the reorganization" is something insiders either don't know or won't say.

Among the other big tasks facing Commissioner Derthick are:

- Appointment of a deputy commissioner.
- Filling a number of still vacant lower echelon jobs, particularly in the research and statistical branches.
- Push ahead on the cooperative research agreements with universities.

• Administer the USOE's newly-established practical nurse education program.

Most of these might come under one heading: administering the Office's largest appropriation in history—$5 million.

Educators who were instrumental in his selection have already reacted favorably to his post-appointment statement of philosophy on the federal role in education. "Control of education rests with the states and communities and should remain there," he said. "Federal contribution to education should be leadership without domination and assistance without interference."

On the touchy issue of public-school desegregation, the new Commissioner has publicly expressed an appeal for moderation. His own view is summed up with: "I support the Supreme Court decision."

It should be noted that there had been no permanent Commissioner during October and November, the crucial months when federal agencies approach the Budget Bureau to justify money requests for the coming fiscal year. It is obvious, therefore, that some of the activities of the Office will carry on in 1957–58 had been planned and approved without Dr. Derthick's participation.

Whatever new projects Dr. Derthick initiates, however, will probably have a direct bearing on helping local school administrators in their jobs.

A former superintendent of schools in Chattanooga, Tenn., Dr. Derthick has been an active member of NEA for many years, and served in 1953–54 as president of the American Association of School Administrators.

A one-time public-school teacher and principal and professor of education, Dr. Derthick is described as having "grass roots approach with a top administrator's background" to education.

Inadequate Physical Education.—Well-equipped school gymnasiums, adequate playing fields, qualified physical-education teachers, and sufficient curriculum time for physical education are the major objectives of a nationwide campaign soon to be launched by physical-education partisans. In the forefront of the campaign will be the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (AAHPER) whose three-day meeting here last month set the stage.

The meeting, which brought together some 100 physical-education leaders from all over the country, was an outgrowth of President Eisenhower's physical fitness conference at Annapolis last summer. The conclusions of the Annapolis conference—that all was not well with the physical health of the nation as a whole—was taken as a signal by physical-education experts to go into action.

They saw in it, too, support for an argument they have been waging since 1885—namely that physical education in the public schools has seldom been adequate. Even where

it does exist, physical-education people say, it is the most "expendable" item in the curriculum. When schools face classroom shortages, they argue, the problem is partially solved by converting the gymnasium into classrooms. When temporary school additions have to be built, they go up on what were former playing fields.

Physical educators further point out that barely 50 percent of all high-school students take courses in physical education—either with or without credit. Percentages for elementary-school students, particularly for grades one through six, are even lower.

To counter this trend, AAHPER is shortly to launch an "educational program" to convince state and local school officials and parents of the need for more, and better, physical education. One thing to be stressed is that even in these present times of teacher shortages, physical-education teachers should not be transferred to teaching other courses.

Everybody's Willing.—Who, in Washington, will take leadership to promote the education of those who have gone through high school but want more schooling?

We will, says the U. S. Office of Education, as it strengthens its adult education service under the able direction of Dr. Ambrose Caliver.

We will, says the NEA's Adult Education Department, as it begins to step up its publication and consultation services.

We will, says the American Vocational Association, as it begins to muster support for legislation seeking federal aid for the establishment of area vocational schools.

We will, says the Association of Land-Grant Colleges, as it points out that these tax-supported institutions have had "the historic" role of serving both urban and rural adult populations.

It was in such an atmosphere of professional concern that Sen. Clifford Case (R., N.J.) introduced his suggestion that the federal government help finance a string of "community colleges" across the country.

The Case proposal would have the federal government provide up to one-third the cost of building and equipping the so-called "community colleges." The Senator says his aim is to "alleviate the crowded conditions in education beyond the high school." As framed, the Case measure would:

1. Provide two years of education at low-cost colleges in preparation for the final two years at a four-year college.

2. Provide a terminal program of two years of post-high school education with opportunities for vocational training for subprofessions and occupations of a technical nature.

While a number of educators have expressed unofficial and personal endorsement of the idea, the spokesman for one national organization labeled the proposal "too limited." He points out that at pres-

ent the proposal puts too great an emphasis on a particular type of institution. "If the federal government is to aid education at all, it should provide support for institutions of all types," he says.

The Senator drew up his grant-in-aid proposal in response to new evidence of the shortage of post-high school facilities, as reported by the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School.

Sen. Case's position—which his office takes pains to point out is by no means a final one—is that more emphasis should be placed on general education. The Senator's proposal would allow support of schools where there is technical training, but only in combination with a general educational curriculum.

Unesco Concentrates.—American officials here, back from the recent month-long 9th General Unesco Conference in New Delhi, are "highly pleased" over the outcome of the world educational gathering.

But they are keeping their eyes on Congress to see what the lawmakers will do about the additional $1 million voted for the 1957–58 budget. Unesco delegates approved a record $22.6 million budget—$2 million over the 1955–56 expenditures, and $1 million more than proposed by Director General Luther Evans.

The U. S. delegation abstained from voting on the budget after warning that the American Congress might not be "enthusiastic" about contributing more money "without proper and prior consultation between governments."

One source of gratification to the U. S. delegation was the fact that about 55 percent of the new budget would be used for three major projects. Concentration, rather than a buckshot approach, is one of the principles American educators have long favored.

Most important of these projects, as far as our delegation was concerned, will be a stepped-up teacher-training program for Latin America. Inclusion of this item was an outgrowth of last year's meeting (in Lima, Peru) of education ministers of the Pan-American nations. At that meeting it was pointed out that more than half the children of Latin America are illiterate, with few teachers available—and those that are available, of low educational preparation.

Two other major tasks to be undertaken by Unesco during the next two years will be:

1. A research program to develop the arid areas of the world.
2. A program designed to develop mutual appreciation of Asian and Western values.

The latter project had the support of both the U. S. and the Soviet Union.

Educational TV Grows.—About the time this item appears in print a total of 31 educational television stations will either be on the air or ready to go into operation. As

this item is being written, 24 ETV stations are in operation.

This one fact is the reason educational television leaders characterize the growth of the movement as one of "startling progress."

An enterprise which has drawn investments totaling $50 million, educational television has come a long way since 1952 when the Federal Communications Commission reserved 258 TV channels for education's use. And while there is little likelihood that all these channels will ever be used by educational interests, the movement's four-year growth to date "has surpassed the most optimistic views."

The Joint Council on Educational Television, which acts as a "watchdog" over ETV from its headquarters here, recently brought FCC up to date on educational television's activities around the nation. It reported:

- The 24 presently operating ETV stations represent an increase from the eight which were on the air in 1954.
- With the addition of the seven new stations about to go into operation, ETV will be reaching a potential audience of 60 million persons.
- Since FCC's channel reservation in 1952, more than 30 states have created commissions or study groups to look into new uses of educational television.
- State legislatures, public institutions of higher learning, local boards of education, and municipal governments, as well as private institutions, individuals, and business concerns have had enough faith in ETV to contribute some $50 million to finance studies and help build stations.

JCET's encouraging "Progress Report" is only one side of the ETV coin.

The other, as revealed in the results of a study by the U. S. Office of Education's Chief of Radio and Television, Dr. Franklin Dunham, indicates that commercial broadcasters are making more and more time available for use by schools and colleges. And what is perhaps even more significant—educators are taking advantage of the free-time offers.

Dr. Dunham found that 531 program series are presented over commercial channels—some of them for college credit.

Subjects covered on television range from elementary science to classic languages on the university level.

This and That.—Four Washington groups have been officially accused by educators as helping to plunge the knife into the Kelley school construction bill. The accused (who have not offered a defense) are the U. S. Chamber of Commerce, the National Association of Manufacturers, The Farm Bureau Federation, and the American Legion. . . .

- States will receive $100 million from the federal government next year to help pay for meals served children during their school lunch hour. . . . •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

El Paso, Tex.: **H. E. Charles**, formerly assistant superintendent, has been named successor to **Mortimer Brown**, resigned.

Shenandoah, Pa.: **Thomas J. Quigley**, formerly a high-school teacher, has been named superintendent.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Princeton, N.J.: **Robert F. Goheen**, assistant classics professor in the university, will succeed **Harold W. Dodds** as president when Dr. Dodds retires in June.

Hastings College, Neb.: **Dale D. Welch** has resigned as president to enter private business as vice-president of First of Iowa Corporation, investment bankers.

University of Alabama: **Oliver C. Carmichael** resigned as president in January.

Quinnipiac College, Hamden, Conn.: **Nils G. Sahlin** has been appointed president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.: **B. J. Chandler**, formerly of the University of Virginia, has been named associate professor in the school of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Roy K. Wilson, executive secretary of the National School Public Relations Association and formerly assistant director of the NEA Division of Press and Radio Relations, has been named acting director, succeeding **Belmont Farley**, retired.

Herbert G. Espy, project director for NEA since last March and formerly state commissioner of education in Maine, has been appointed specialist in state school administration for the U. S. Office of Education. Other recent additions to the U. S. Office of Education include: **Walter N. Adamson**, New Britain, Conn., senior research coordinator for the cooperative research program; **Kathryn G. Heath**, Washington, D. C., assistant director of the international educational relations branch; **Harold M. Williams**, Madison, Wis., specialist in education of exceptional children; **Virgil R. Walker**, specialist in secondary-school organization and administration; and **Frank E. Wellman**, Ames, Ia., in charge of organization of guidance and student personnel programs. **John B. Holden**, formerly of Michigan State University, East Lansing, has been named specialist in adult education.

D. M. Schweickhard, Minnesota commissioner of education, was recently named president-elect of the Council of Chief State School Officers at its annual meeting in San Francisco, Calif.

RECENT DEATHS:

Mary M. Fitz-Gerald, retired deputy superintendent, San Francisco, Calif., at the age of 96. Mrs. Fitz-Gerald served in the San Francisco system for 43 years.

Folsom Views 1957

A HOPE that federal aid for school construction will be enacted in 1957 was expressed by Marion B. Folsom, secretary, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, in a wire-service news release shortly before the start of the new year.

"Federal legislation will be most effective if it calls for allotments to states according to their school building needs and financial abilities," he said. "It definitely should insure that school control remains with the states and communities."

Among other things envisioned by Secretary Folsom for 1957 were: continued expansion of the U.S. Office of Education, a bright outlook for educational research, and progress in teacher pay and prestige.

"All the facts about educational needs today point to one clear conclusion," he said. "America must have an educational expansion and readjustment beyond anything we have ever had before. And the American people should face up to the hard fact that one of the things this will require is money, much more than we have ever spent before for education."

More Cooperative Research

FOURTEEN more educational research contracts totaling a half-million dollars have recently been approved by the U. S. Office of Education.

The projects will be conducted by six colleges and universities. Mental retardation will be studied in a group of projects by Syracuse University, George Peabody College, and Ohio State University. Southern State College, Magnolia, Ark., will conduct research on retention of students in school; Western Michigan College, Kalamazoo, education problems of migrant children; and the University of Alaska, education for Alaskan Indians and Eskimos.

Educators Visit India

A DELEGATION of distinguished American educators is attending the centenary celebrations of the three Indian universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay in January and February.

The delegation, as announced by Arthur S. Adams, president of the American Council on Education, consists of Oliver C. Carmichael, president of University of Alabama; Robert F. Goheen, president-elect of Princeton University; Walter H. C. Laves, chairman of the department of government, Indiana University; and Francis J. Brown, American Council on Education.

Funds for the participation in these celebrations were provided in part by the Asia Foundation.

Kits for Special Weeks

AIDS for the annual observance of Brotherhood Week, February 17–24, and Pan American Week, April 8–14, are available to teachers.

The Brotherhood Week program aids and publications are available from the offices of The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 43 West 57th St., New York 19, N. Y.

The Pan American kits, which include posters, guides, teaching aids, and documents, are available from Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C.

Golden Key Award Winners

GOLDEN Key Awards for "distinguished service in the improvement of education" will go to Beardsley Ruml, economist, and General Maxwell D. Taylor, U. S. Army Chief of Staff, and to their former teachers during the 1957 conventions of the American Association of School Administrators and National School Boards Association in Atlantic City this month.

Mr. Ruml will be saluted for his

"recognition that public education must be financed on a scale commensurate with its urgent current needs." General Taylor will receive his key for his "demonstrated belief in education as a bulwark in the nation's defense."

Sponsors of the Golden Key Awards are: Council of Chief State School Officers; National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations; American Association of School Administrators; National Citizens Council for Better Schools; National Congress of Parents and Teachers; National Education Association; National School Boards Association; and U. S. Office of Education.

Combine Activities

THE Ford Foundation's activities in the field of education were combined on January 1 with those of the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

Henry T. Heald, president of The Ford Foundation, in announcing the move, stated, "By incorporating the Fund's program in the Foundation's total program, by making available the combined resources of the two organizations, and by using both experimentation and proven ideas and working through established institutions, we believe we can make a more fruitful broad-scale attack on the problems of education than either could do separately."

Clarence H. Faust, president of the Fund, now is a vice-president of the Foundation, too, under the new set-up. William McPeak, vice-president of the Foundation, who has been responsible for the educational, behavioral science, and humanities programs, will continue the last two and will undertake the development of some new programs in the Foundation.

Opens New York Office

THE Educational Television and Radio Center opened an office in New York City on Feb. 1 to expedite program and general development activities in the East. The new office is located in the Carnegie Endowment International Center, United Nations Plaza.

The ETRC will continue to maintain its central office in Ann Arbor, Mich., according to H. K. Newburn, president.

The Center is currently working with the National Broadcasting Company in New York on the development of the first national live programming for educational TV stations later this year.

Math Curriculum Study

THE Carnegie Corporation has announced a $150,000 grant to the College Entrance Examination Board to make a nation-wide study of the problems of overhauling the mathematics curriculum. The board's commission on mathematics is composed of eminent mathematicians and educators.

The results of the commission's work will be made available to the authors and publishers of textbooks, and conferences will be held with secondary-school teachers to explain

and gain support for the revised curriculum.

The Carnegie Corporation last spring also gave $227,000 to the University of Illinois for an experimental program for the improvement of mathematics courses in secondary schools.

New Organization

A NEW organization, the National Council of Administrative Leadership, marks the first nation-wide effort to improve preparation programs for school administrators on a continuing basis. Starting with a grant of $400,000 from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, the council will coordinate research at major institutions throughout the nation.

Daniel R. Davies, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, is acting chairman for the new council. Coordination of the studies to be carried on and dissemination of their findings will be handled through a Cooperative Center for Educational Administration, whose temporary headquarters are at Teachers College.

Better Science Teaching

A NEW approach for the teaching of high-school science will be sought with the support of a recent grant of $303,000 by the National Science Foundation to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. A conference in December at the Massachusetts school, attended by leading scientists and secondary-school educators, launched the program which, it is hoped, will result in new teaching effectiveness and in attracting more young people to the field of science.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Feb. 14-16, National School Boards Association, Atlantic City, N.J.

Feb. 14-16, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 15-20, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N.J.

Feb. 23-27, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D.C.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

March 1-5, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Washington, D.C.

March 17-21, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, St. Louis, Mo.

March 24-29, NEA Department of Elementary-School Principals, Cincinnati, Ohio.

April 4, NEA Centennial Birthday Party.

April 8-14, Pan American Week.

April 21-26, Association for Childhood Education International, Los Angeles, Calif.

April 23-26, National Catholic Educational Association, Milwaukee, Wis.

April 23-27, International Council for Exceptional Children, Pittsburgh, Pa.

April 24-26, American Industrial Arts Association, Kansas City, Mo.

June 30-July 6, National Education Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

New Educational Materials

A Teacher Is a Person. Charles H. Wilson. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1956. Pp. 285. $3.75.

This is an educational autobiography that strays outside the limits of both education and biography into the fields of humor and philosophy. Dr. Wilson uses his own classroom experiences to humanize and illustrate his ideas on education, which are definite and at times even unique: he is highly opinionated, many educators will say, on such subjects as grading, the division of classes by I.Q., the waste of brain power in the United States, discipline, and the relationship between teacher and student.

The author is a thinking man and, more especially, a thinking educator, and his book will delight everyone who is interested in better schools.

The Teacher's Treasure Chest. Edited by Leo Deuel. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. Pp. xi + 372. $4.95.

This book contains essays by noted educators like Irwin Edman and William James; stories by ex-teachers like Evan Hunter and Elizabeth Gray Vining; and varying views of the academic life by plain ex-pupils like Sinclair Lewis, Shirley Jackson, James Thurber, J. P. Marquand, and many others. According to Benjamin Fine, education editor of the New York *Times*, all of the stories present the "feel of the teaching profession."

In subject matter, the stories range from Helen Keller's moving tribute to her "Teacher," to Ogden Nash's hymn to the all-time absent-minded professor.

Out of the nearly 70 stories, essays, anecdotes, and poems in this book comes a composite picture of those who teach and those who learn, from the battered desks of the primary grades to the green walls of famous universities.

Measurement and Evaluation for the Secondary-School Teacher. Georgia Sachs Adams and Theodore L. Torgerson. New York: The Dryden Press, 1956. Pp. 658. $5.75.

Basic theories on which this book is built have long been recognized. Psychology long ago established that it is the individual, not the class, that learns, and that there are individual differences which must be understood and provided for if each student is to approximate his potential growth and achievement. The authors, in this book, narrow the gap between theory and practice in the area of testing.

The authors have worked creatively with children who had learning difficulties. They have worked with teachers who were seeking insights and techniques which would enable them more effectively to help their students overcome learning difficulties. It is this first-hand experience that has enabled them to make the contribution that this book represents.

Professional Problems of Teachers. Albert J. Huggett and T. M. Stinnett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1956. Pp. ix + 468. $5.25.

This book provides basic information for college students who will shortly enter teaching, and for recent graduates who have begun a teaching career, on a cluster of problems which members of the teaching profession must deal with daily as practitioners and as effective members of their professional organizations.

Emphasis has been given to the use of this book in the preservice preparation of teachers and for the professional growth of young teachers, but it may also serve as a valuable source book in the work of various in-service organizations. Many of the materials were tried

out experimentally over a period of four years in classes in the School of Education of Michigan State University.

Reading Improvement for Adults. Paul D. Leedy. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956. Pp. viii + 456. $4.50.

This book brings modern reading techniques to the businessman, the engineer, the professional man, the college student, and the busy housewife who know how to read already and who want to read more quickly and with increased comprehension. It is not intended for those with physical or psychological defects.

The approach is a practical one. An attempt has been made to meet most of the general needs as well as the specialized demands that confront the average adult reader. Reading of graphs and other visual aids, business correspondence, and technical material and reading for the purpose of sheer enjoyment are all discussed.

Education and Economics, The Year Book of Education, 1956. Edited by Robert King Hall and J. A. Lauwerys. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1956. Pp. x + 595. $8.50.

This volume of *The Year Book* is the fourth prepared under the joint editorial responsibility of Teachers College, Columbia University and the University of London Institute of Education. It offers a comprehensive and thoughtful discussion of the relations which exist between the educational and economic aspects of the total cultural pattern.

Contents are divided in four sections: The Demand for Education; the Acquisition and Distribution of Resources; Problems of Management; and Socio-Economic Consequences and Determinants.

The scholarly and insightful treatment of these and similarly complex questions, as well as the reputation of the contributors, make this an invaluable work for the scholar, educator, and administrator.

Other Materials Received:

Elementary

Marionettes. Mildred M. Osgood. New York: The Arts Cooperative Service, Inc., 1956. Pp. 19. $.75.

The Shy Child. Helen Ross. New York: Public Affairs Committee, 1956. Pp. 28. $.25. Discounts in quantity.

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials. Thirteenth Edition. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1956. Pp. xv + 318. $5.50.

Diagnose and Improve Your English Skills. Prepared by editors of *Read* magazine. Columbus, Ohio: Wesleyan University Press, Inc., Education Center, 1956. Pp. 32. $.25. Designed for grades six through nine.

Secondary

Critical Thinking in Current Affairs Thinking. 1956. Pp. 28. Available free from Junior Town Meeting League, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

Good Health—Key to Better Living: A Manual for Senior High School Students. 1956. Pp. 20. Available free from National Blue Cross Commission, Chicago 11, Ill.

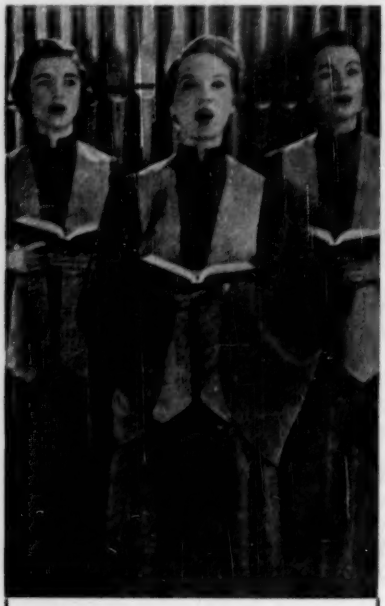
College

A Description of the College Board Scholastic Aptitude Tests and A Description of the College Board Achievement Tests. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1956. Pp. 63 and 135. $.50 each.

The University, The Citizen, and World Affairs. Cyril O. Houle and Charles A. Nelson. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1956. Pp. xv + 179. $3.00.

General

Supervision in Rural Schools: A Report on Beliefs and Practices. Jane Franseth. Bulletin No. 11, 1955, U.S.



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Office of Education. Pp. 44. Available from U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. $.25.

Rehabilitation Counselor Preparation. Edited by James Herrick Hall and Sol L. Warren. 1956. Pp. x + 78. Available from National Rehabilitation Association, 1025 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C., $1.00.

Teacher's Handbook; A Guide to the Interpretation and Follow-up of Achievement Scores. Louis P. Thorpe, D. Welty Lefever, and Robert A. Naslund. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1956. Pp. 47. $.35.

Guidance

Careers in Office Management and **Career as Speech and Hearing Therapist.** Two revised pamphlets in the B'nai B'rith Occupational Brief Series. Pp. 8. Available from the B'nai B'rith Vocational Service, 1129 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington 5, D.C. $.20 each.

Vocational and Professional Monographs. Cambridge, Mass.: Bellman Publishing Company, 1955, 1956. A series of approximately 90 pamphlets on vocations and career opportunities. $1.00 each.

Audio-Visuals

Our Heritage of History and **The Uses of History.** Preston Slosson. **The Nature of Poetry.** Frank C. Baxter. **The Care and Feeding of the Mind.** Jacques Barzun. **The Promise of Education.** Robert M. Hutchins. Recordings in the Distinguished Teachers Series marketed by the newly-formed Spoken Arts, Inc., in association with Westminister Recording Co., Inc., New York. Other series include Distinguished Playwright Series, Golden Treasury of Verse Series, Great Artists Series, and Distinguished Composers Series. $4.98 each.

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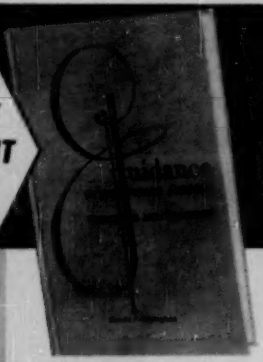

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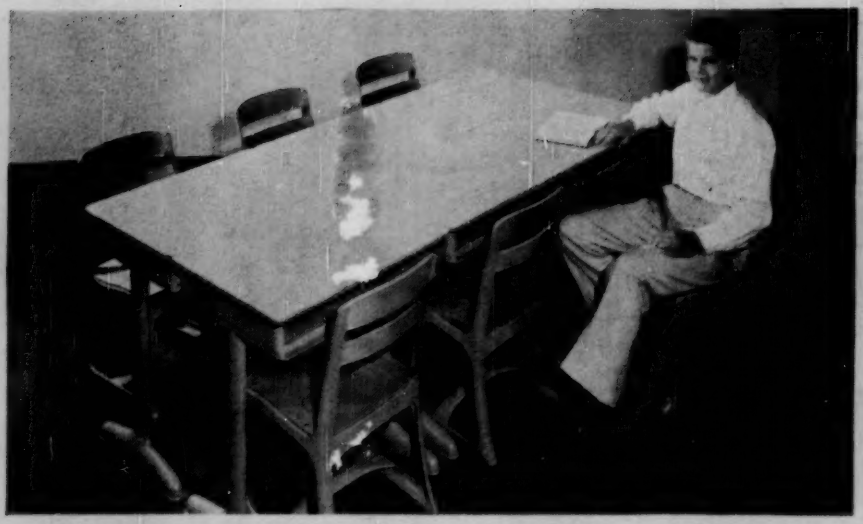

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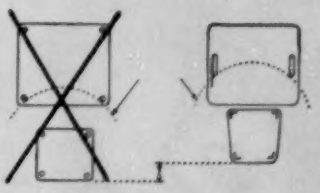

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